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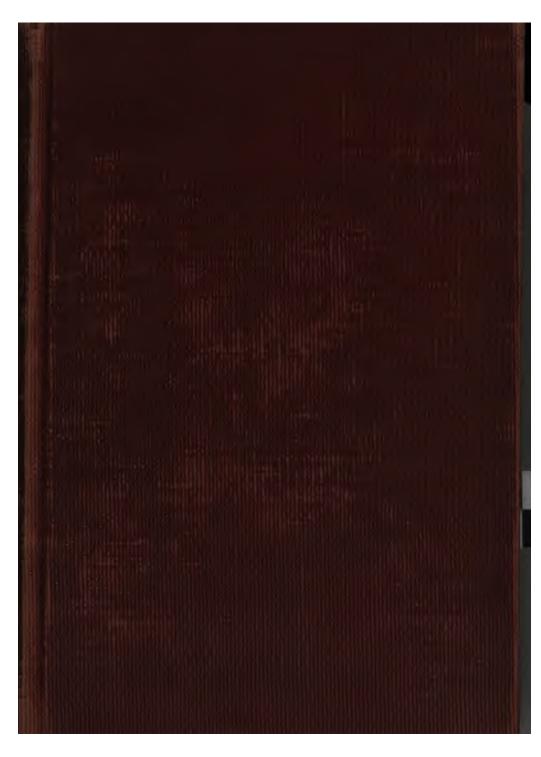
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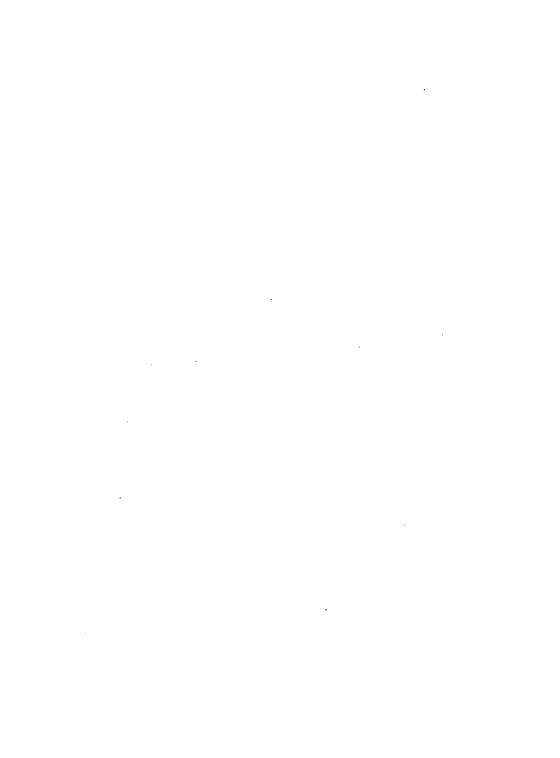


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COMPLETE

LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

ALBERT HARKNESS, Ph.D., LL.D. PROFESSOR EMERITUS IN BROWN UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK :: CINCINNATI :: CHICAGO

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY



Time Claryo A. Briun

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ENTERED AT STATIONERS' HALL.

HARK, COMP. GRAM.

W. P. I



PREFACE

THE volume now offered to the public is the result of lifelong labors in the field of grammatical study. A profound conviction of the value of the classical languages in a course of liberal education and an earnest desire to aid the student in mastering the intricacies of the Latin tongue with as much ease and rapidity as is consistent with true scholarship have led to the preparation of the present work. The instruments of education must of course be readjusted from time to time to the ever-changing methods in school and college. Accordingly the prime object of this volume is to adapt the work of instruction to present methods and present In view of the heavy demands now made on the time of classical teachers and students a special effort has been made to develop the practical side of grammar, to make it as helpful as possible to the teacher in the difficult task of explaining the force of involved constructions in Latin authors, and as helpful as possible to the learner in his early efforts to understand and appreciate thought in the strange garb of a complicated Latin sentence. Simplicity and clearness, ever of paramount importance in the work of the class-room, have received special attention.

Designed at once as a text-book for the class-room and a book of reference in study, this volume aims not only to present a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the Latin language for the benefit of the beginner, but also to make adequate provision for the needs of the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness in the choice of phraseology, and compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, I have endeavored to compress within the limits of a convenient manual an amount of carefully selected grammatical facts which would otherwise fill a much larger volume.

Syntax has received special attention. An attempt has been

made to exhibit as clearly as possible that remarkable system of laws which the genius of the Latin language has created for itself. Accordingly the leading principles of construction have been put in the form of definite rules or laws, and fully illustrated by carefully selected examples from Latin authors, a mode of treatment perfectly consistent with scientific accuracy, and sanctioned by the general experience of teachers as in the highest degree helpful to the pupil. Moreover, to secure convenience of reference and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these laws of the language after having been separately discussed are presented in a body at the close of the syntax.

A special effort has been made to simplify and explain the difficult and intricate subject of the subjunctive. The ordinary constructions of that mood in simple sentences and in independent clauses are first stated and illustrated with great fulness to give the pupil a clear idea of its distinctive nature and use, and thus to prepare him to understand the process by which the mood passes from these simple independent uses to the more difficult dependent constructions. Too often the pupil sees no connection between an independent and a dependent subjunctive; what he has learned in regard to the former is no help to an acquaintance with the latter, but with the method here adopted it is hoped that after having mastered the ordinary independent uses of the mood he will be able to recognize even in the most involved constructions in subordinate clauses only new illustrations of principles with which he is already familiar. To him the subjunctive in a subordinate clause will be no longer a dreaded stranger, but an acquaintance and friend.

The subject of Hidden Quantity has received due attention in this volume as in the author's earlier Latin Grammar. Indeed, that work is believed to be entitled to the honor of having been the first Latin Grammar that ever attempted to mark systematically the hidden quantity of vowels, and to point out the means for determining it.

Another consideration which has had weight in determining the character of this grammar is the importance of bringing the treatment which the practical needs of the school and college

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PREFACE

seem to demand into harmony with the learned results recently gathered by specialists in the field of historical grammar and linguistic study. On this point I deem myself fortunate in having secured the cordial cooperation of three of the eminent Latinists who are engaged in the preparation of the "Historische Grammatik der Lateinischen Sprache" now in process of publication at Leipzig, Professor F. Stolz of the University of Innsbruck, Professor G. Landgraf of Munich, and Professor H. Blase of Giessen, authors whose works are known and read by classical scholars throughout the world, and whose names are identified with the best scholarship of the age.

In accordance with a previous arrangement the manuscript on Phonology, Morphology, and Etymology, when nearly ready for the press, was submitted to Professor Stolz with the distinct understanding that if any part of the work was not found to be in full accord with the latest and best views within the range of his own special studies he should point it out, and suggest the best method of bringing the practical and the scientific views into harmony. By a similar arrangement the manuscript on Agreement and on the Use of Cases was submitted to Professor Landgraf, and that on Moods and Tenses to Professor Blase. a careful examination of the several subjects submitted to their consideration they made written reports with such suggestions as their special studies warranted, and subsequently in a series of personal interviews I had the rare opportunity of obtaining their views and their advice on the various doubtful questions connected with our subject. I desire, therefore, to express my grateful appreciation of their kindness in thus freely offering me the priceless results of life-long labors in their several spheres.

I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to my colleagues in the University, Professors A. G. Harkness and W. C. Poland, who have read the proof, and given me the benefit of their accurate scholarship and large professional experience; to Professor E. P. Morris of Yale University for important statistics in regard to Interrogative Sentences, Quod Clauses, and the Use of the Subjunctive in Plautus and Terence; to Dr. H. W. Hayley for aid in the revision of the Prosody; to Dr. G. A. Williams of the

University Grammar School for the preparation of the indices, and to Dr. H. F. Linscott of the University of North Carolina for valuable suggestions on Phonology and Etymology.

My thanks are also due to many other friends who have kindly favored me with their advice, especially to Dr. C. B. Goff of the University Grammar School, Dr. W. T. Peck of the Providence High School, Dr. Moses Merrill of the Boston Latin School, and Dr. John Tetlow of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston.

For the benefit of those who prefer to begin with a more elementary manual in the study of Latin a school edition of this Grammar is published simultaneously with it. This is intended to meet the wants of those who do not contemplate a collegiate course of study; for all others the complete work will be found far more helpful.

In conclusion I desire once more to make my grateful acknowledgments to the classical teachers of the country who by their fidelity and skill in the use of my books have won for them such marked success. To their hands this work is now respectfully and gratefully committed.

ALBERT HARKNESS.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, June 8, 1898.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CITING LATIN AUTHORS

```
C. R. P.
Caes.
         = Caesar, de bello Gallico
                                                   = Cicero, de Re Publica
Caes. C.
                   de bello Civile
                                        C. Rosc. A. =
                                                        "
                                                            pro Roscio Amerino
C. Ac.
         = Cicero, Academica
                                        C. Rosc. C. =
                                                            pro Roscio Comoedo
                                                        "
C. Agr.
                   de lege Agraria
                                        C. Sen.
                                                            de Senectute
              "
                   de Amicitia
                                        C. 1 Ver.
                                                            in Verrem Actio I.
C. Am.
              ..
                                                            in Verrem Actio II.
C. Att.
                   ad Atticum
                                        C. Ver.
C.C.
                   in Catilinam
                                                   = Horatius, Carmina
                                        H.
              "
C. Div.
                   de Divinatione
                                        H.E.
                                                         "
                                                               Epistulae
C. Div. C. =
              "
                   Divinatio in Caeci-
                                                         "
                                                               Epodi
                                        H. Ep.
                                                   = Ovidius, Metamorphoses
                     lium
                                        0.
              "
C. Fam. =
                   ad Familiares
                                        O. H.
                                                              Heroides
              "
C. Man. =
                   pro lege Manilia
                                        Pl.
                                                   = Plautus
              "
C. N. D. =
                   de Deorum Natura
                                        S.
                                                   = Sallustius, Iugurtha
C. Opt. G. =
              "
                   de optimo genere
                                        S.C.
                                                                Catilina
                     Oratorum
                                        T.
                                                   = Terentins
C. Or.
              "
                   de Oratore
                                        Tac.
                                                   = Tacitus
              "
C. Q. Fr. =
                   ad Quintum fratrem
                                                   = Vergilius, Aeneis
                                        Verg.
              "
C. Rab.
                   pro Rabirio
                                        Verg. E.
                                                               Eclogae
C. Rab. P.=
              "
                   pro Rabirio Postumo Verg. G.
                                                         "
                                                               Georgica
                                                   =
                                      χv
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LV

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LATIN GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

- 1. The Latin language derives its name from the Latīnī, the Latīns, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European family, which embraces eight groups of tongues, known as the Aryan, the Armenian, the Greek, the Albanian, the Italian, the Keltic, the Germanic, and the Balto-Slavic. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.
- 2. The Latin, the Oscan, and the Umbrian are the three leading members of the Italian group of this family, and the resemblance between them is so great that they appear to be only different dialects of one common language. At the dawn of history the Latin was confined to the small district of Latium, while the Oscan was spoken in the southern part of Italy, and the Umbrian in the northeastern part; but at the beginning of the Christian era, the Latin had not only supplanted the Oscan and the Umbrian in Italy, but it had already become the established language of a large part of Southern Europe. The Oscan and Umbrian dialects have been preserved to us only in very scanty remains, but the Latin is enshrined in a rich and valuable literature extending over a period of several centuries.
- 3. From the Latin has been directly derived the entire group of the Romance languages, of which the Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese are important members. The English belongs to

the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family, but it is indebted to the Latin for one third of its vocabulary. Hence the importance of a thorough knowledge of the Latin, if we would understand and appreciate our own vernacular.

LATIN GRAMMAR

- 4. Latin grammar treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises five parts:
 - I. Phonology, which treats of the letters and sounds of the language.
 - Morphology, which treats of the form and inflection of words.
 - III. Etymology, which treats of the derivation of words.
 - IV. Syntax, which treats of the structure of sentences.
 - V. Prosody, which treats of quantity and versification.

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PART I. - PHONOLOGY

ALPHABET

- 5. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of j and w, but k is seldom used, and y and z occur only in words of Greek origin.
- 1. It originally consisted of only twenty-one letters, as c supplied the place of c and g; i of i and j; u of u and v and sometimes of y.
- 2. Subsequently **G**, formed from **C** by simply changing the lower part of the letter, was added to the Latin alphabet, and at about the same time **z** disappeared from it. Thus the alphabet continued to consist of twenty-one letters until the time of Augustus, when **y** was introduced into it from the Greek and **z** was restored from the same source.
- 3. Even in the classical period C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C. stands for Gāius, and Cn. for Gnaeus. This is a survival from the original use of C for G.

¹The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cūmae. Throughout the classical period they used in general only capital letters.

- 4. U and V, originally designated by the same character, are now used in many of the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant, as in English.
- 6. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants, and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following:

7. CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS

Vowels

1.	Open vowel ²		a		
2.	Medial vowels 8	е	1	0	
3.	Close vowels	i	v		u

Consonants

		Gutturals	Palatals	Linguals	Dentals	Labials
4.	Semivowels, sonant	4	$\mathbf{i} = \mathbf{y}$			$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w}$
5.	Nasals, sonant	n ⁵			n	m
6.	Liquids, sonant			1, r		
7.	Spirants, surd 4	h			8	f
8.	Mutes, sonant	g			đ	b
9.	Mutes, surd	c, q, k	:		t	p
3.7		. , ,				

Note. $-\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{cs}$, or \mathbf{gs} , is a double consonant.

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¹ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus i, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as ē, is a vowel; but combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of y; see 12, 2.

² The vocal organs are fully open in pronouncing the open ā, as in father, less so in pronouncing the close vowels and the semivowels, and very nearly closed in pronouncing the mutes.

E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close i, o a medial vowel between the open a and the close u; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme: j. e a

⁴ Sonant or voiced; surd or not voiced, but simply breathed.

⁵ With the sound of n in concord, linger. It occurs before gutturals; congressus, meeting.

- 8. Observe that the consonants are divided,
- 1. According to the organs chiefly employed in their produc-

Gutturals, — throat letters.
Palatals, — palate letters.
Linguals, — tongue letters.
Dentals, — teeth letters.
Labials, — lip letters.

2. According to the manner in which they are uttered, into Sonants, or voiced letters.

Surds, voiceless or breathed letters.

9. Diphthongs are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable. The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu. He and ui are rare.

ROMAN PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN²

10. The vowels are pronounced substantially as follows 3:

Long					Short						
ā	like	a	in	ah:	ā'-rā 4	а	like	initial a	in	aha 5:	at
ē	"	е	"	they:	đē ⁶	е	"	е	"	net:	et
ī	"	i	66	pique:	ī'-vī	i	44	i	"	pick:	iđ
ō	44	0	"	hole:	Ōs	0	"	0	"	forty:	ob
ũ	44	u	"	rule:	ū′-sū	u	44	u	"	full:	ut

1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sunt, u as in sum, su'-mus; see 14 and 15.

¹ The distinction between a sonant and a surd will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad. B is vocalized, p is not.

² This method is now generally adopted in the schools and colleges of our country. By the English method, which formerly prevailed, the letters are pronounced in general as in English.

⁸ But the vowel sounds must be kept as pure as possible, free from the glide or vanish heard in English.

⁴ Latin vowels marked with the macron — are long in quantity, i.e. in the duration of the sound; those not marked are short in quantity; see 15, 4. Observe that the accent is also marked. For the laws of accentuation, see 16 and 17.

⁵ The short vowels occupy only half as much time in utterance as the long vowels, but they can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. They have, however, nearly the same sound as the corresponding long vowels, but, with the exception of a, they are somewhat more open.

⁶ Or 6 like a in made, I like e in me, and a like oo in moon.

- 2. Y, found only in Greek words, is intermediate in sound between the Latin i and u, similar to the French u and the German ü: Nỹ'-sa.
- 3. U in qu, 1 and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of w: quī (kwe); lin'-gua (lin-gwa); suā'-sit (swa-sit).
- 11. Diphthongs. In diphthongs, each vowel retains its own sound:

```
aes, mēn'-sae 2
ae nearly like ai
                   in aisle:
                   " coin:
                               foe'-dus
     "
           " oi
OB.
           66
              011
                   " out:
                               aut, au'-rum
au
           66
              eu
                   " fend:
                               neu, neu'-ter 2
eu
                   " veil:
                               ei, hei
           " ei
ei
     "
     "
                               cui (kwe)
           " we
```

12. Consonants. — Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

```
like
                  in come:
                               co'-ma, ce'-na
              c
ch
      "
              ch
                  " chemist: cho'-rus
                  "get:
                               ge'-nus, glō'-ria
       "
              g
g
       "
                  " vet:
                               iam (yam), iūs (yoos)
i
              y
                               rū'-mor8
              r
                  " rumor:
r
       "
                  " son:
                               so'-nō, sa'-cer
       ..
                  " time:
                               ti'-mor, tō'-tus
       "
                  " we:
                               vel. vir
                 " quit:
                               quī, quō
              qu
au
```

- 1. Before a word beginning with a vowel, or with h, a final vowel, or a final m with a preceding vowel, seems to have been partially suppressed in the ordinary speech of the Romans, as well as in poetry. It was rapidly and indistinctly uttered, and thus it readily blended with the following vowel.
- 2. Observe that i is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant, that as a vowel it has, when long, the sound of i in machine or of e in me, and that as a consonant it has the sound of y in yet, yes. It is generally a vowel between consonants and a consonant between vowels, and at the beginning of words it is generally a vowel before consonants and a consonant before vowels: sī'-mus (se-mus), mā'ior (mah-yor); ī'-re (e-rā), iam (yam).
 - 3. In the aspirated forms of the mutes, ch, ph, and th, h is in general

¹ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant.

² In pronouncing ae, endeavor to unite the sounds of the Latin a and e, and in pronouncing eu, unite the sounds of e and u; but some scholars pronounce ae like ea in pear.

^{*} R should be trilled.

nearly or quite silent, though sometimes heard, especially in Greek words: cho'-rus (ko-rus), pul'-cher (pul-ker); A-thē'nae; phi-lo'-so-phus.

- 4. B has the sound of p before s and t: urbs, sub'-ter (pronounced urps, sup'-ter).
 - 13. Syllables. In dividing words into syllables.
- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mō'-re, per-suā'-dē, mēn'-sae.
- 2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced with it: 2 pa'-ter, pa'-trēs, ge'-ne-rī, do'-mi-nus, mēn'-sa, bel'-lum. But—
- 3. Separate compound words into their component parts: ab'-es, ob-ī'-re.3
- 4. A syllable is said to be open when it ends in a vowel, and closed when it ends in a consonant. Thus in pa'-ter, the first syllable is open, and the second closed.

QUANTITY

- 14. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common, i.e. sometimes long and sometimes short.
- 1. Long. A syllable is long in quantity, (1) if it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: haec, res; and (2) if its vowel is followed by x, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: dux, rex, sunt.
- 2. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate h: di'-ēs, vi'-ae, ni'-hil.

¹ On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see 55, 1, footnote.

² By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mnis, i'-pse. Others, on the contrary, think that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it, a view which is favored by the fact that a syllable with a short vowel becomes long, if that vowel is followed by two consonants, except a mute and a liquid; as one does not see how the consonants can make the syllable long, unless one of them belongs to it.

⁸ But it is a question whether this traditional rule represents the actual pronunciation of the Romans, as it seems probable that compounds were pronounced like simple words.

⁴ For rules of quantity, see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

- 3. Common. A syllable is common if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'-grī.¹
- 15. Vowels, like syllables, are either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable, as a short vowel may stand in a long syllable.
- 1. Vowels standing before x or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid, are said to have hidden quantity.
- 2. It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the hidden quantity of vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short, unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.
- 3. Vowels are long before ns, nf, and gn: con'-sul, in-fe'-līx, reg'-num, ig'nis.
- 4. The signs -, and are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is long, the second that it is common, i.e. sometimes long and sometimes short; ubi. All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

ACCENTUATION

- 16. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: mēn'sa.
 - 1. In Latin as in English accent is stress of voice.
- 17. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, the last syllable but one, if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the Antepenult, the last but two: ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.
- 1. The enclitics, que, ve, ne, ce, met, etc., never used as separate words, throw back their accent upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho-mi-ne'-que; mēn-sa'-que; e-go'-met.
- 2. Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics, i.e. they are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word that they have no accent of their own: sub iū'-di-ce; in-ter rē'-gēs.

[·] ¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.

² Thus the quantity of the *syllable*, not of the *vowel*, determines the place of the accent: regen'-tis, accented on the penult, because that syllable is long, though its vowel is short; see 14, 1.

- 3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: mo'-nu-5'-runt, mo'-nu-e-rā'-mus, īn-stau'-rā-vē'-runt.
- 4. A few long words admit two secondary accents: ho'-nō-ri'-fi-cen-tis'-si-mus.
- 5. Certain words which have lost a final e retain the accent of the full form: il-līc' for il-lī'-ce, il-lāc' for il-lā'-ce, is-tīc' for is-tī'-ce, etc.; bo-nān' for bo-nā'-ne, tan-tōn' for tan-tō'-ne, au-dīn' for au-dīs'-ne, ē-dūc' for ē-dū'-ce.
- 6. Genitives in I for iI and vocatives in I accent the penult: in-ge'-ni for in-ge'-ni-I; Mer-cu'-rI.
- 18. Compounds are accented like simple words, but facto, when compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-le-fa'-cit.
- 19. Original Accent. Originally all Latin words were accented on the first syllable. This fact must be borne in mind in explaining phonetic changes. The syllable immediately following the original accent, i.e. the second syllable of the word, is called a Post-Tonic syllable.

INHERITED VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

20. The Latin inherited from the parent speech the vowels, a, e, i, o, u; ā, ē, ī, ō, ū; and the diphthongs, ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou; āi, ēi, ōi, āu, ēu, ōu. In some words these vowels have been preserved unchanged as in the following examples:

 a: agō, amō, albus
 ā: māter, fāgus, clāvis

 e: est, decem, ferō
 ē: lēx, mēnsis, plēnus

 i: fidēs, quis, minuō
 I: vīs, vīvus, sīmus

 o: octō, domus
 ō: dōnum, nōtus

 u: super, ruber
 ū: mūs, sūs

- 1. The Latin also inherited an indistinct Indo-European vowel represented by an inverted e; see 29.
- 2. The diphthong au retains its original form in classical Latin, as in autem, augeō; but all the other diphthongs were more or less changed before the classical period, though most of those which begin with a short vowel occur in rare instances in early Latin.

VOWEL GRADATION, OR ABLAUT

- 21. The Latin also inherited certain vowel variations, which appear in the different forms of certain roots, stems, and suffixes.
- 1. Thus the common root of fod-iō, I dig, and fōd-ī, I have dug, is fod in fod-iō and fōd in fōd-ī; that of fac-iō, I make, and fēc-ī, I have made, is fac and fēc; that of gen-us, offspring, and gī-gn-ō, I beget, is gen and gn¹; that of dō-num, gift, da-mus, we give, and de-d-ī, I have given, is dō, da, and d.¹ This variation in vowels is called Vowel Gradation or Ablaut.
- 2. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, but in Latin they have mostly disappeared as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.

PHONETIC CHANGES

- 22. Latin words in the course of their history have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.
- 23. The phonetic changes in vowels may be either Qualitative, affecting the quality of the sound, or Quantitative, affecting its length or quantity.

I. Qualitative Changes in Vowels

- 24. An Indo-European a may become in Latin in post-tonic ² syllables: (1) e, (2) i, (3) i or u, and (4) u. Thus:
- A becomes e in post-tonic closed 2 syllables, except before labials and
 factus, but confectus; captus, but acceptus.
- 2. A becomes i in post-tonic open 2 syllables, except before labials, and in all post-tonic syllables before ng: agō, but adigō; statuō, but cōnstituō; tangō, but at-tingō.
- 3. A becomes i or u in post-tonic open syllables before labials and before l: capiō, but man-cipium and man-cupium; saliō, but īn-siliō and īn-suliō.
- 4. A becomes u in post-tonic syllables before 1 + another consonant: saliō, but in-sultus; calcō, but in-culcō.

¹ Observe that the vowel sometimes disappears: gen, gn; da, d.

² Remember that the term post-tonic is applied to the syllable following the initial accent, i.e. to the second syllable of the word (19), and that a syllable is said to be open when it ends in a vowel, and closed when it ends in a consonant; see 13. 4.

- 25. An Indo-European e may become: (1) i and (2) o. Thus:
- 1. E becomes i, (1) in post-tonic syllables, except before r: legō, but col·ligō; emō, but ad-imō; (2) in final syllables before s and t: salūtes, salūtis; Cereres, Cereris; *leget,¹ legit; *reget, regit; and (3) before n + a guttural: *tenguō. tinguō.
 - 2. E becomes o after an initial v: *velt, volt2; *vemō, vomō.
 - 3. Initial sve becomes so: *svenos, sonus: *svedālis, sodālis.
 - 26. An Indo-European i may become: (1) e and (2) i or u. Thus:
- 1. I final may become e, but it sometimes disappears as in neuter stems in all and ari (103, 1): *mari, mare; *levi, leve.
 - 2. I before r for s becomes e: *sisō, serō; *cinisis, cineris.
- 3. I becomes i or u in post-tonic syllables before labials: pontifex or pontufex.
- Final er is sometimes developed from ri-stems, as follows: *acri-s, *acri-s, *acer-s, acer.3
- 27. An Indo-European o⁴ may become: (1) u, (2) e, (3) e or i, and (4) i or u. Thus:
- 1. O becomes u (1) in post-tonic closed syllables: *genos, genus; *donom, donum; and (2) in accented syllables before 1 + a consonant and before n + a consonant: *molta, multa; *honc, hunc; *oncos, uncus.
 - 2. O becomes e when final: *isto, iste; *sequiso, sequere.
- 3. O becomes e or i in post-tonic open syllables, except before labials: *societās, societās; *novotās, novitās.
- 4. O generally becomes i, rarely u, in post-tonic open syllables before labials: aurifex, rarely aurufex: māximus, māxumus.
- 5. Final er is sometimes developed from ro-stems in the same way as from ri-stems (26, 4): *agro-s, *agr-s, *ager-s, ager.
- 28. An Indo-European u becomes i or u in post-tonic syllables before labials: old form dissupō, later dissipō; lacruma, later lacrima.
- 29. An indistinct Indo-European vowel, represented by an inverted e = 0, generally becomes a in Latin: *dotos, datus; *sotos, satus.

¹ The assumed form from which the Latin word, as it appears in literature, is supposed to have been derived, is designated by an asterisk.

² Volt subsequently became vult.

⁸ I in acri-s disappears, leaving r sonant, then r sonant becomes er, and final s disappears.

⁴ After v, u, or qu, o is preserved longer than elsewhere: servos, afterward servus; so mortuos, equos, etc.

- 30. The Indo-European liquids and nasals, 1, r, and m, n, are vocalized in Latin; 1 becomes ol, later ul, and r becomes or: *mlta, *molta, multa; *mrtis, mortis; m becomes em, and n, en: *dekin, decem; *tntos, tentus.
- 31. Assimilation of Vowels. A vowel is sometimes assimilated to the vowel of the following syllable: *consulium, consilium; *exsulium, exsilium; *mehi, mihi; *tebi, tibi; *nehil, nihil; *bone, bene; *memordit, mo-mordit, *pe-poscit, po-poscit; *ce-currit, cu-currit.

II. Qualitative Changes in Diphthongs

- 32. The diphthong ai is retained in early inscriptions, but it afterward becomes ae and I. Thus:
 - 1. Ai generally becomes ae: *laivos, laevus, scaevus, aevum.
- Ai becomes ī both in post-tonic and in final syllables: quaerō, but in-quīrō; *mensais, mēnsīs.
- 33. The diphthong ei becomes I in pronunciation, although sometimes written ei in early Latin: dīcō; dīvus, fīdō, sometimes written deivus, feidō.
 - 34. The diphthong of becomes oe, ū, and I. Thus:
 - 1. Oi becomes oe in a few words: poena, foedus.
 - 2. Oi becomes ū in most words: *oinos, *oenos, ūnus; *moenia, mūnia.
 - 3. Oi becomes i in final syllables: *equoi, equi; *equois, equis.
- 35. The diphthong au generally remains unchanged, but it sometimes becomes **ū** in post-tonic syllables: claudō, but in-clūdo; fraudō, but dē-fraudō, or dē-frūdo.
- 36. The diphthongs, eu and ou, coalesce and become ū: *deucō, *doucō, dūcō; *ious, iūs.

III. Quantitative Changes in Vowels

- 37. Vowels are lengthened before ns, nf, and gn: consul, Infēlix, Ignis.
- 38. Vowels are often lengthened in compensation for the loss of consonants. Thus:
- For the loss of s or x in accented syllables before d, l, m, or n: *nisdos, nīdus, English nest; *isdem, īdem; *acsla, āla; *prismos, prīmus; *posnō, pōnō; *texmō, tōmō.

- 2. For the loss of h: *mahior, māior; *ahio, āiō.
- 3. A vowel lengthened before ns in final syllables remains long after the loss of n: *servons, servos; *rēgēns, rēgēs.
 - 39. Long vowels are shortened
- 1. Generally before other vowels: *audīunt, audiunt; *audīam, audiam; fidēī, fideī; rēī, reī; but diēī, illīus.
- 2. In final syllables before 1, m, r, t, and nt: *animāli, animal; *amēm, amem; *audiār, audiar; amāt.¹ amat; *amānt, amant.
- 3. Final ā is shortened in classical Latin in the plural of neuter nouns and adjectives and in the Nominative and Vocative singular of nouns in a of the First Declension: templā in Plautus, later templa; graviā, gravia; musā, musa.
- 4. Final ē, ī, and ō are sometimes shortened: *malē, male; *nisī, nisi; *ibī, ibǐ; *egō, ego.
- 5. The shortening of final syllables is supposed to have begun in dissyllables with iambic measurement, i.e. with short penults. In these the final syllable was shortened by being assimilated in quantity to the first, as amāt, amat; bonā, bona; egō, ego.
- 6. Long vowels in syllables originally accented (19) are sometimes shortened, and the following consonant is doubled in compensation: Iūpiter, Iuppiter; lītera, littera; *mītō, mittō.
- **40.** Vowels may disappear from a word by syncope or vowel absorption: *re-pepulī, reppulī; *re-cecidī, reccidī; *clavidō, claudō; *prīmiceps, prīnceps; *ūnudecim, ūndecim.
- Final vowels sometimes disappear: *animāli, animal; dīce, dīc;
 *sīne, sīn.
- 41. Occasionally a short vowel, generally u, sometimes e or i, is apparently developed before a liquid or nasal: *stablom, stabulum; *stablis, stabilis; but see 30.

CONTRACTION OF VOWELS

- 42. Two vowels of the same quality are contracted into the corresponding long vowel: *treies, *trees, trēs; *īgnees, īgnēs; nihil, *niil, nīl; *coopia, cōpia.
- 43. Two vowels of different quality are contracted into a long vowel, generally of the quality of the first: *co-agō, cōgō; *de-agō, dēgō; *pro-emō, prōmō.

¹ Final &t, &t, and it are preserved long in Plautus and other early poets: vers&t, hab&t, velit,

- 1. The changes illustrated in the following verbal forms may have been produced either by contraction, or by the dropping of the syllable ve or vi before r or s: amāveram, amāram; amāvisse, amāsse; nēvissem, nēssem; nōvisse, nōsse.
- 2. Many combinations of vowels remain uncontracted, as aē, ea, eō, ia, iē, ua, and uē: aēneus, eam, moneō, animālia, diēs, ingenua, ingenuē.

CONSONANTS

- 44. The Latin inherited the following consonants:
- 1. The Mutes k, g, t, d, p, b, and the Aspirates gh, dh, bh.
- 2. The Nasals m, n, and the Liquids 1, r.
- 3. The Semivowels i and u, and the Spirant s.
- 45. The Latin inherited three series of k- and g-mutes, distinguished as Palatals, Velars, and Labialized Velars. These are represented in Latin as follows:
- 1. The Palatals k and g become c and g, and gh generally becomes h, but after n it becomes g: centum, decem, in which k becomes c; ager, genus, in which g remains g; humus, hortus, in which gh becomes h; angō, fingō, in which gh becomes g.

Note. — In a few words initial gh before u becomes f: fundo.

- 2. The Velars are developed like palatals, velar k and g becoming c and g, and velar gh generally becoming h, but becoming g before r: capere, cavere; grüs, tegō; hostis, hortor; gradior.
- 3. The Labialized Velar **k** becomes **qu**, which becomes **c** before consonants: **quis**, **que**, **quod**, in which the labialized velar **k** becomes **qu**, which becomes **c** in *coc-sī, **coxī**.
- 4. The Labialized Velar g becomes gu, which remains unchanged after nasals, but is reduced to g before other consonants, and to v when initial or between vowels: unguō, stinguō, in which the labialized velar g becomes gu; glāns, āgnus; veniō, English come; vīvus.
- 5. The Labialized Velar gh becomes f, when initial, gu after n, and v between vowels: formus, friō; an-guis, nin-guit; niv-is.
- 46. The Dentals t and d generally remain unchanged: pater, septem; decem, deus.
- 1. The aspirate dh becomes f when initial: facio, fores, English door, and generally d when medial, but b before r: medius; ruber.
- 47. The Labials p and b generally remain unchanged: potis, pāx, opus; lambō, lūbricus; but p became b in a few words, as in ab for *ap, ob for *op, sub for *sup, bibō for *pibō.

- 1. The aspirate **bh** becomes (1) **f** when initial: **frāter**, English **brother**; **ferō**, English **bear**, and (2) **b** when medial: **al-bus**, **amb-itus**.
- 48. The Nasals m¹ and n and the Liquids 1² and r remain unchanged: medius, homō; genus, dōnum; linquō, ruber.
- 49. V generally remains unchanged: ovis, aevum; but it is sometimes lost between vowels: *nevolō, nōlō.
- 50. S often remains unchanged: est, sumus, suus; but it generally becomes r between vowels: s flos, floris; genus, generis.

CHANGES IN CONSONANTS

- 51. A Guttural—c, g, q (qu), or h (for gh)—before s unites with it and forms x: *duc-s, dux; *reg-s, rex; *coqu-si, coxi; *trah-si, traxi.
 - 1. For the loss of the guttural between a liquid and s or t, see 58, 1.
 - 52. Note also the following changes in consonants:
- 1. Dt and tt become st before r; in other situations they generally become ss, reduced to s after long syllables: *rōd-trum, rōstrum; *fod-tus, fos-sus; *plaud-tus, plau-sus; *vert-tus, ver-sus.
 - 2. D sometimes represents an original t: aput, apud; haut, haud.
 - 3. Dv initial sometimes becomes b: dvellum, bellum.
- 4. Sr, when initial, becomes fr; otherwise br: *srīgus, frīgus, cold. *fūnes-ris, from fūnes in fūner-is, fūnebris.
- 5. A euphonic **p** is generally developed between **m** and **s** and between **m** and **t**: *cōm-si, cōm-p-si; *cōm-tum, cōm-p-tum.

ASSIMILATION

- 53. A consonant is often assimilated to a following consonant. Thus:
- 1. D and t are often assimilated before s; ds and ts becoming ss, which is simplified to s when final, and after diphthongs and long vowels: *concutsit, concus-sit; *lapid-s, lapis; *art-s, ars; *amant-s, amāns; *claud-sit, clau-sit; *suād-sit, suā-sit.

^{1.}M, when final, was a very weak nasal, and before words beginning with a vowel it almost disappeared in pronunciation.

² L appears in place of an earlier d in about a dozen Latin words: lingua, old form dingua; lacrima, olēre.

^{...} R sometimes takes the place of final s, following the analogy of r for s between vowels; thus honos becomes honor from honoris. S may be retained between vowels when it stands for ss: hau-sī for *hau-sī.

- 2. D is generally assimilated before c, qu, g, l, n, p, and s: *hod-ce, *hoc-ce, hoc; quid-quam, quio-quam; *ad-ger, ag-ger; *sed-la, sel-la; *merced-nārius, mercen-nārius; *quid-pe, quip-pe; *claud-sit, *claus-sit, clau-sit.
- 3. T is assimilated before c and s: *sit-cus, sic-cus; *concut-sit, concus-sit.
 - 4. N is assimilated before 1 and m: *un-lus, ullus; *gen-ma, gem-ma.
 - 5. R is assimilated before 1: *ager-lus, agel-lus.
- 6. P is assimilated before f and m: *op-ficina, of-ficina; *sup-mus, sum-mus.
 - 7. S is assimilated before f: *dis-ficilis, dif-ficilis.
 - 8. For assimilation in Compounds of Prepositions, see 374.
 - 54. A consonant is sometimes assimilated to a preceding consonant.
- D and n are generally assimilated to a preceding 1: *cal-dis, cal-lis; *col-nis, col-lis; *fal-no, fal-lo.
- 2. S is assimilated to a preceding 1 or r: *facil-simus, facil-limus; *vel-se, vel-le; *fer-se, fer-re; *acer-simus, acer-rimus.
- 55. Partial Assimilation. A consonant is often partially assimilated to the following consonant. Thus:
- 1. Before the surd s or t, a sonant b or g is generally changed to its corresponding surd, p¹ or c: *scrib-sī, scrīp-sī; *scrib-tus, scrīp-tus; *reg-sī, rēxī (51); *reg-tus, rēc-tus.
- 2. Qu² and h are also changed to c before s and t: *coqu-sit, *coc-sit, coxit; *coqu-tus, coc-tus; *trah-sit, *trāc-sit, trāxit; *trah-tus, trāc-tus.
- 3. Before a labial, p or b, n is generally changed to the labial m: inperō, imperō; inperātor, imperātor; *inbellis, imbellis.
- 4. Before n, a labial, p or b, is changed to the labial m in a few words: *sop-nos, som-nus; *Sab-niom, Sam-nium.
- 5. M is changed to the dental n regularly before dental mutes, and often before guttural mutes: *eum-dem, eun-dem; *eōrum-dem, eōrun-dem; *quem-dam, quen-dam; *tam-tus, tan-tus; *hum-ce, hunc; *prīm-ceps, prīn-ceps; num-quam or nun-quam; quam-quam or quan-quam.

¹But b is generally retained before s in abs and in nouns in bs: urbs; and before s and t in ob and sub in compounds and derivatives: ob-servans, ob-tūsus, sub-scrībō, sub-ter. In these cases, however, b takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in writing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing.

² Qu is not a syllable; u in this combination is simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it.

- 56. Dissimilation. The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus:
 - 1. *Caeluleus, from caelum, becomes caeruleus.
- 2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with 1 generally used after r, and one with r generally used after 11: ālis, āris; blum, bulum, brum; clum, culum, crum; rēg-ālis, popul-āris; vocā-bulum, dēlū-brum; *ōrā-clum, ōrā-culum; *vehi-clum, vehi-culum; sepul-crum.

LOSS OF CONSONANTS

- 57. Of two consonants standing at the beginning of a word, the first often disappears; of three thus situated, the first two often disappear: *gnātus, nātus; *gnōtus, nōtus; *scoruscus, coruscus; stlīs, līs; *stlocus, locus.
 - 58. Groups of consonants often lose one or more of their members.
- 1. A guttural mute—c, g, or qu—standing between a liquid and s or t, generally disappears: *mulcsit, mulsit; *fulgsit, fulsit; *spargsit, sparsit; *torqusit, torsit; *fulctus, fultus.
- 2. A guttural mute occasionally disappears in other situations, especially before **m** or **v**: *lūcmen, lūmen; *exagmen, exāmen; *iugmentum, iūmentum; *bregvis, brevis.
- 3. Cs and x sometimes disappear: *lūcsna, lūna; *sexdecim; *sexnī, sēnī; *axla, āla, wing.
- 4. D generally disappears before sc, sp, st: adscendere, ascendere; adspicere, aspicere; adstāre, astāre.
- 5. N, r, and s often disappear: *in-gnōtus, Ignōtus; *equōns, equōs; *porscere, pōscere; *isdem, Idem; *iūsdex, iūdex; *prismus, prīmus; audīsne, audīn.
- 6. I consonant generally disappears between vowels, and sometimes in other situations: *bi-iugae, *

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of v: si vis, sis, si vultis, sultis.

¹ The suffix aris was formed from alis by dissimilation; from clum was formed crum by dissimilation, and culum by developing the vocal liquid 1; blum and brum are both inherited, but bulum was developed from blum. In reg. alis, alis is used because r precedes, but in popularis, aris is used because 1 precedes. When neither 1 nor r precedes, the original suffix alis is used.

² This is the approved form in verbs compounded of lacere and monosyllabic prepositions; but abicere is pronounced as if written abilicere. The syllable ab thus remains long by position.

- 7. H often disappears between vowels, or before i consonant; prehendő, prēndő, nihil, nīl; *ahiō, āiō; *mahior, māior.
 - 8. For the assimilation and loss of d and t before s, see 53, 1.
 - 59. Loss of Final Consonants. Final consonants often disappear.
- 1. Final d disappeared at a very early date after long vowels and after r: sententiād, sententiā, ablative; praedād, praedā; *datōd, datō, imperative; *habētōd, habētō; *cord, cor.
 - 2. Final t disappears after c and s: *lact (lact-is), lac, *ost, os.
- 3. Final n disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in on, on: *leon, leo; *homon, homo; *egon, ego.
- 4. Final os disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in ro, and final s sometimes disappears in early inscriptions from other stems in o: *pueros, puer; *viros, vir; Rōscios, Rōscio, later Rōscius; Cornēlios, Cornēlio.

PART II. -- MORPHOLOGY

-002600-

- 60. Morphology treats of the Form and Inflection of words.
- 61. The Parts of Speech are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

- **62.** Nouns, or Substantives, are Names, as of persons, places, or things: Cicero; Rōma, Rome; domus, house.
- A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: Cicero, Roma.
- 2. A Common Noun, or Appellative, is a name common to all the members of a class of objects; vir, man; equus, horse. Common nouns include

Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.

Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtue; iūstitia, justice.

Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; lignum, wood; aqua, water.

- 63. Adjectives qualify nouns: bonus, good; māgnus, great; bonus vir, a good man.
 - 64. Nouns and Adjectives have Gender, Number, and Case. HARK. LAT. GRAM. 3

GENDER

- 65. There are three genders Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- 66. Natural and Grammatical Gender. In Latin gender is either Natural, as dependent upon sex, or Grammatical, as dependent upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

Natural Gender

- 67. The names of Persons have Natural Gender. They are accordingly
- 1. Masculine, if they denote males: Caesar, Caesar; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Feminine, if they denote females: Tullia, Tullia; mulier, woman; rēgīna, queen.
- 3. Both Masculine and Feminine, if they are applicable to both sexes: oivis, citizen, male or female; homō, a human being, man or woman; but when used without distinct reference to sex, such nouns are generally masculine.
- Note. A few names of the lower animals are sometimes used in the same way: bos, ox, or cow; canis, dog, male or female; anser, gander, or goose. But some names of the lower animals, though applicable to both sexes, have only grammatical gender determined by their endings (71): corvus, raven, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

Rules for Grammatical Gender

- 68. Masculine. The names of Rivers, Winds, and Months are masculine: Rhēnus, the Rhine; Notus, the South Wind; Mārtius, March; but
- 1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance with this rule. Thus names of rivers in a are feminine: **Albula**, the river Albula; **Allia**, the Allia.
- 69. Feminine. The names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees are feminine: Graecia, Greece; Rōma, Rome; Dēlos, the Island of Delos; pirus, pear tree; but
- 1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance with this rule. Thus plurals in I and a few other nouns are masculine

and nouns in um are neuter: Delphi, Pontus; oleaster, wild olive tree; pinaster, fir tree, masculine; Latium, Saguntum, neuter.

- 70. Neuter. Indeclinable nouns, Infinitives and clauses used as nouns are neuter: alpha, the Greek letter alpha, a; fās, the right; tuum amāre, your loving.
- 71. Gender by Endings. In most nouns and adjectives the grammatical gender is determined by the ending of the Nominative singular. Thus nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension (82) in us are masculine: amīcus, friend; bonus, good; nouns and adjectives in a are feminine: mēnsa, table; bona, good; and nouns and adjectives in um are neuter: templum, temple; bonum, good.

PERSON AND NUMBER

72. The Latin, like the English, has three Persons, the First Person denoting the speaker; the Second, the person spoken to; the Third; the person spoken of; and two Numbers, the Singular denoting one, and the Plural, more than one.

CASES

73. The Latin, unlike the English, has six cases:

Names	English Equivalents
Nominative	Nominative, Case of the Subject
Vocative	Nominative, as the Case of Address
Genitive	Possessive, or Objective with of
Dative	Objective with to or for
Accusative	Objective after a Verb or a Preposition
Ablative	Objective with from, with, by, in

- 1. Oblique Cases. The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.
- 2. Locative. The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the Place in Which.

DECLENSION

74. Stem and Suffixes. — The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.

- 1. Meaning.—Accordingly, each case form contains two distinct elements—the Stem, which gives the general meaning of the word, and the Case Suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in regis, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem reg; the relation of, by the suffix is.
- 2. Characteristic. The last letter of the stem is called the Stem Characteristic, or Stem Ending.
- 3. Case Endings. The case suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns and adjectives with consonant stems, while in all other words they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i.e. with the final vowel of the stem. The ending produced by the union of the case suffix with the characteristic vowel is called a Case Ending.

Cases Identical in Form

- 75. 1. The Nominative and Vocative are alike in form, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in us of the Second Declension and in a few Greek nouns. In all other words the Vocative is simply the Nominative used in address, as the Nominative is used in English.
- 2. The Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative in neuters are alike and in the plural end in a.
 - 3. The Dative and Ablative plural are alike.
- 76. Five Declensions. In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the endings of the Genitive singular, or by the stem characteristic, best seen in the Genitive plural, as follows:

1)ec	lension	Gen. Sing. Ending	Characteristic		Gen. Plur.
I.	or	A-Dec.	ae	ā	seen in	mēns-ā-rum
II.	"	O-Dec.	1	0	"	serv-ö-rum²
III.	"	I-Dec.	is	i	44	cīv-i-um
4.4	"	Cons. Dec.	is	cons.	4.6	mīli-t-um ⁸
ĮV.	66	U -Dec.	ūs	u	66	früct-u-um
v.	44	E-Dec.	ĕī	ē	66	di-ē-rum

- 1. The five declensions were inherited from the parent speech.
- 77. The First, Second, and Third Declensions contain both nouns and adjectives; the Fourth and Fifth only nouns.

¹ In many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a Root. For the distinction between roots and stems, see 320, 1.

² The 5 in serv-5-rum was originally short; hence the characteristic is 0.

⁸ In this word the characteristic is t.

FIRST DECLENSION

A-Nouns and A-Adjectives - Stems in a

78. Latin nouns and adjectives of the First Declension end in a and are feminine. They are declined precisely alike, as follows:

A-Nouns

Mēnsa, table, a table, or the table.

		Singular	
Cases		Meaning	Case Endings 1
N. V.2	mēns a	a table, O table	a
Gen.	mēns ae	of a table	ae
Dat.	mēns ae	to or for a table	ae
Acc.	mēns am	a table	am
Abl.	mēns ā	with, from, or by a table 8	ā
		PLURAL	
N. V.	mēns ae	tables, O tables	a e
Gen.	mēns ārum	of tables	ārum
Dat.	mēns īs	to or for tables	īs
Acc.	mēns ās	tables	ās
Abl.	mēns īs	with, from, or by tables	īs

A-Nouns and A-Adjectives

Bona, good.	rēgīna,	queen.

		Singular	
Cases	Adjective	Noun	Meaning
N. V.	bon a	rēgīn a	a good queen, O good queen
Gen.	bonae	rēgīn ae	of a good queen
Dat.	bonae	rēgīn ae	to or for a good queen
Acc.	b on am	rēgīn am	a good queen
Abl.	bonā	rēgin ā ⁸	with, from, or by a good queen

¹ These case endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases, the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared.

² N. V. = Nom. and Voc. As the Vocative is only a special use of the Nominative, it is combined with that case in the paradigm.

The Ablative, used sometimes with a preposition and sometimes without, is variously rendered, but the Ablative of personal appellatives takes a preposition, as & or ab, from, by; cum, with, etc.; & bonk regina, from or by the good queen.

PLURAL

N. V.	bon ae	rêgīn ae	good queens, O good queens
Gen.	bon ārum	rēgin ārum	of good queens
Dat.	bon īs	rēgīn īs	to or for good queens
Acc.	bon ās	rēgin ās	good queens
Abl.	bon īs	rēgīn īs	with, from, or by good queens

- 1. Stems.—In nouns and adjectives of the First Declension, the stem ends in ā, shortened in the Nominative and Vocative singular. Thus the stem mēnsā becomes mēnsa in the Nominative, bonā becomes bona, and rēgīnā, rēgīna.
- 2. In the paradigms, observe that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case endings.
- 3. Examples for Practice. Like mēnsa and bona decline: āla, wing; causa, cause; puella, girl; beāta, happy; longa, long; pulchra, beautiful.
- 4. Locative. Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in ae, denoting the Place In Which any thing is or is done: Rômae, at Rome, mīlitiae, in war. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending is: Athēnis, at Athens.
- 5. Exceptions in Gender. A few nouns in a are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 67, 1. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also damma, deer, and talpa, mole.
- 6. Article. The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown.
- 7. Original Case Endings.—The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		Plura	L
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	ā	а	āi	ae
Gen.	ās, āī	ae	āsom	ārum
Dat.	āi	ae	āis	īs
Acc.	$ar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{m}$	am .	āns or ās	ās
Abl.	ād	ā	āis	īs

- 79. Of these original endings four are found in Latin writers:
- 1. ā in the Nominative and Vocative singular in Plautus and Terence.
- 2. ās in the Genitive singular of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
- 3. āī in the Genitive singular in the poets: aulāī, afterwards aulae, of a hall.

- 4. ad in the Ablative singular in early Latin: sententiad, later sententia, by the opinion.
- 80. Two other case endings, common in some other declensions, but rare in this, are
- 1. um in the Genitive plural, chiefly in the poets: agricolum = agricolarum, of farmers; Dardanidum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 2. ābus² in the Dative and Ablative plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son: deābus, for the goddesses.
- 81. Greek Nouns. Nouns of this declension in ē, ās, and ēs are of Greek origin, but in the plural they have assumed the Latin declension, as seen in mēnsa. In the singular they are declined as follows:

	Epitomē, <i>epitome</i> .	Aenēās, Aeneas.	Pyrītēs, pyrites.
		SINGULAR	•
Nom.	epitom ē	Aēnē ās	pyrīt ēs
Voc.	epitom ē	A enē ā	pyrīt ē , pyrīta
Gen.	epitom ēs	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
Dat.	epitomae	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
Acc.	epitom ēn	Aenē am , Aenē ān	pyrīt ēn
Abl.	epitom ē	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , pyrīt ā

- 1. In nouns in ē and ēs, the stem ending ā is changed to ē in certain cases. The stem of epitomē is epitomā, of Aenēās, Aenēā, and of pyrītēs, pyrītā.
- 2. Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a and are declined like mēnsa. Many in 5 have also a form in a : epitomē, epitoma.

SECOND DECLENSION

Q-Nouns and Q-Adjectives - Stems in Q

82. Latin nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension end in us, in r, from which us has been dropped, or in um. Those in us and r are masculine, those in um neuter.

¹ This is the regular suffix in nouns of the Third and Fourth Declensions.

² bus in ā bus is the regular suffix for these cases in the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions.

83. Nouns and adjectives in us and um are declined as follows:

	Amīcus, friend.	Bonus, good.	Templum, temple.	Bonum, good.
	4	Singular		
Nom. Voc.	amīc us amīce	bonus }	templ um	bonum
Gen.	amîc ï	bon ī	templī	bonI
Dat.	amic ō	bon ō	templ ō	bonō
Acc.	amic um	bon um	templ um	bon um
Abl.	amīc ō	bon ō	templ ö	bonō
		PLURAL		
N. V.	amīc ī	bon ī	templ a	bona
Gen.	amīc ōrum	bon ōrum	templ örum	bon õrum
Dat.	amīc īs	bon īs	templ īs	bon īs
Acc.	amic ōs	bon ōs	templ a	bona
Abl.	amīc īs	bon īs	templ īs	bon īs

- 1. Stem. In nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension, the stemends in o with an ablaut form e, seen in the Vocative singular masculine. O becomes u in us and um. The stem of amīcus is amīco, of bonus and bonum, bono, and of templum, templo. The Nominative masculine adds and the neuter m: amīcu-s, templu-m.
- In the paradigms, observe that bonus is declined precisely like amicus, and bonum like templum.
- 3. Like amīcus decline dominus, master; like templum, bellum, war; like bonus, beātus, happy; like bonum, beātum, happy.
- 4. Locative. Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in I: Ephesi, at Ephesus; Corinthi, at Corinth; domi, at home; belli, in war. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending is: Argis, at Argos.
- 5. Genuine Latin Proper Names in ius and the word filius form the Vocative singular in I and accent the penult: Mercu'-rī, Mercury; fili, son. Proper names in ēius have ēī or ei: Pompēī or Pompeī.
- 6. Nouns in ius and ium have in the Genitive singular iī or ī, without a change of accent: fī-liī, fī'-lī, of a son; Clau-dī, Clau'dī, of Claudius; inge-nī, inge'-nī, of genius. The latter form was in general use under the Republic, but the former became common in the age of Augustus; both are used in editions of classical authors. In proper names many editors retain the Genitive in ī: Pūblī Vergi'-lī, of Publius Vergilius.
- 7. **Deus**, god. lacks the Vocative singular in classical Latin, but is otherwise regular in that number. It is declined in the plural as follows:

N. V.	(de I)	di ī	īb	
Gen.	de ōrum , sometimes deum			
Acc.	de ös			
Dat. Abl.	(de īs)	di īs	dis	

Note. — The inclosed forms, though regular, are rarely used. Dif is pronounced like dī, and difs like dīs.

8. The three neuter nouns in us, pelagus, sea, vīrus, poison, and vulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

N. V. Acc.	pelag us	vī rus	vulg us
Gen.	pelag ī	vīr ī	vulg ī
Dat. Abl.	pelag ō	vīr ō	vulg ō

9. Original Case Endings. — The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

		SINGULAR		
	Mase	culine	Ne	uter
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
Nom.	os	us) 2	070	
Voc.	e	e } _	\mathbf{om}	um
Ġen.	ei	ī	ei	ī
Dat.	ōi	ō	ōi	ō
Acc.	om	um	om	um
Abl.	ōd	ō	ōd	ō
		Plural		
N. V.	oi ⁸	ī	ā	а
Gen.	om	ōrum ⁴	om	ōrum 4
Dat.	ōis	īs	ōis	īs
Acc.	ōns	Ōs	ā.	а
Abl.	ōis	īs	ōis	īs

10. The original endings os and om were retained after u and v until the Augustan age: ingenuos, ingenuom, free-born; servos, servom, slave;

¹ These may have been originally s-stems which by the loss of s became o-stems. Pelagus is a Greek noun, and in general is used only in the singular, though pelago occurs as an Acc. plur. Virus and vulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Accusative, vulgum, in addition to the neuter form vulgus.

² The endings us and e are seen only in nouns and adjectives in us. In the masculine of nouns and adjectives in r, the Nominative has lost the ending us, and the Vocative is like the Nominative.

⁸ The final i is probably borrowed from the Pronominal Declension.

⁴ A later formation after the analogy of the Genitive ending arum.

equos, equom, horse; but during the reign of Augustus us and um became the common endings for all words of this class, though in some editions, especially of the earlier writers, os and om are still retained.

- 84. Old and Rare Case Endings: The following occur 1:
- 1. ōđ in the Ablative singular: Gnaivōđ, later Gnaeō; meritōđ, later meritō, from merit.
 - 2. ā in the plural of neuters: templā, later templa.
- 3. um in the Genitive plural of certain nouns denoting money, weight, and measure: talentum = talentōrum, of talents; sēstertium = sēstertiōrum, of sesterces; also in a few other words: liberum, of children; Argīvum, of the Argives.
- 85. Nouns and adjectives in r of the Second Declension have lost the case ending us in the Nominative singular, and are declined as follows:

	Puer,	Līber,	Ager,	Ruber,
	boy.	free.	field.	red.
		SINGULAR		
N. V.	puer	līber	ager	ruber
Gen.	puer ī	liber i	agr ī	rubrī
Dat.	pue rō	līber ō	agr ō	rubr ō
Acc.	puer um	liber um	agr um	rubr um
Abl.	puer ō	līber ō	agr ō	rubr ō
		PLURAL		
N. V.	puer ī	līber ī	agr ī	. rubr ī
Gen.	puer ōrum	līber örum	agr ōrum	rubr ōrum
Dat.	puer ïs	līber īs	agr īs	rubr īs
Acc.	puer ōs	lībe rōs	agr ōs	rubr ös
Abl.	puer īs	līber īs	agr īs	rubr īs

- 1. In the paradigms, observe that puer and ager differ in declension from amīcus, in dropping the ending us in the Nominative, and in forming no separate Vocative: Nom. puer from puer-us.
 - 2. Liber is declined like puer, and ruber like ager.
- 3. The stem of puer is puero, of liber, libero, of ager, agro, and of ruber, rubro.
 - 4. Ager was formed from agros thus: *agr-o-s, *agr-s, *ager-s, ager.2

¹ A few other endings occur in inscriptions.

² First o disappears, leaving r sonant, then r becomes er, *ager-s, and finally s disappears, leaving ager.

- 5. Like puer decline gener, son-in-law; like ager, magister, master; like liber, miser, unhappy; like ruber, niger, black.
- 86. Most nouns and adjectives in r of this declension are declined like ager and ruber, but the following nouns are declined like puer:
- 1. Vir, man, and its compounds: vir, virī, etc.; triumvir, triumvirī, etc., member of a triumvirate.
- 2. Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigeri, armor bearer; signifer, signifer, signiferi, standard bearer.
- 3. Adulter, adulterer; Celtibër, Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Hibër, Spaniard; Līber, Bacchus; līberī, children; Mulciber, Vulcan; presbyter, elder; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
 - 4. For Adjectives, thus declined, see 92.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

- 87. A few nouns in us are Feminine:
- 1. Most names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Aegyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; Cyprus, Cyprus; pirus, pear tree.
- 2. A few words in us of Greek origin: methodus, method; synodus, synod; diphthongus, diphthong.
- 3. Five other words in us: alvus, belly; carbasus, linen; colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, fan.
- 88. Three nouns in us are Neuter: pelagus, sea; virus, poison; vulgus, the common people.
- 89. Greek Nouns. Nouns of the second declension in os, ōs, generally masculine, and in on, neuter, are of Greek origin. They are declined in the singular as follows:

	Dēlos, f.,2	Androgeōs,	Īlion,
	$oldsymbol{Delos}.$	And rogeos.	${\it Ilium}.$
		SINGULAR	
Nom. Voc.	Dēlos } Dēle	Androge ōs	Īlion
Gen.	Delī	Androgeō, Androgeī	Īli ī
Dat.	Dēl ō	Androge ō	Īli ō
Acc.	Dēlon	Androge ōn , Androge ō	Īli on
Abl.	Dēl ö	$\mathbf{Androge}\mathbf{m{\tilde{o}}}$	Īli ō

¹ Celtiber and Hiber have ē long in the Genitive as in the Nominative, and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

² Observe that Delos, the Island Delos, is feminine by signification.

- 1. The plural of nouns in os and on is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as oe in the Nominative plural, and on in the Genitive plural: Arctoe, the constellation of the Bears; Theraeon, of the Theraeans.
 - 2. In the paradigms, the stems are Dēlo, Androgeō, and Īlio.
- 3. Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um and are declined like amīcus and templum. Many in os and on have also a form in us and um, or at least assume the regular Latin forms in some of their cases.
 - 4. For Greek nouns in eus, see Orpheus, 110.
 - 5. Panthūs has Voc. Panthū. For pelagus, see 83, 8.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

- 90. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, as we have already seen, are declined like nouns of the same endings, but unlike nouns, each of these adjectives has three different forms, one for each of the three genders. Thus bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter: bonus amīcus, a good friend; bona rēgīna, a good queen; bonum templum, a good temple.
- 91. Comparative View of the three Forms representing the three Genders in Adjectives of this class.

	Masculine Bonus, $good$.	Feminine bona, $good$.	Neuter bonum, good.
	S	INGULAR	,
Nom. Voc.	bon us } bon e }	bon a	b on um
Gen.	bon ī	bon ae	bon ī
Dat.	bon ō	bon ae	bon ō
Acc.	bon um	bon am	bon um
Abl.	bon ö	bon ā	bon ō
		Plural	
N. V.	bon ī	bon ae	bon a
Gen.	bon ōrum	b on ārum	bon õrum
Dat.	bon īs	bon īs	b on is
Acc.	bon ōs	bon ās	b on a
Abl.	bon īs	b on is	bon īs

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Līber,	lībera,	līberum,
	free.	free.	free.
	Sı	NGULAR	
N. V.	liber	līber a	liber um
Gen.	liber ī	liber ae	lībe rī
Dat.	līber ō ·	liber ae	liber ö
Acc.	liber um	līber am	liber um
Abl.	līber ō	līber ā	liber ō
	I	PLURAL	
N. V.	liber i	liber ae	līber a
Gen.	līber ōrum	līber ārum	lībe rōrum
Dat.	liber is	līber īs	līber īs
Acc.	liber ös	līber ās	liber a
Abl.	līber īs	liber is	līber īs
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Ruber.	rubra,	rubrum,
,	red.	red.	red.
	Sı	NGULAR	
N. V.	ruber	rubr a	rubr um
Gen.	rubrī	rub rae	rubr ī
Dat.	rubr ō	rubr ae	rubr ō
Acc.	rubr um	rubr am	rubr um
Abl.	r ubr ō	rubr ā	r ubr ō
	I	LURAL	
N. V .	rubrī	rubr ae	rubr a
Gen.	rubr ōrum	rubr ārum	rubr örum
Dat.	rubr īs	rubr is	rubr īs
Acc.	rubr ōs	rubr ās	rubr a
Abl.	rubr is	rubr īs	rubr īs

- 1. In the paradigms observe that in the masculine bonus is declined like amīcus, līber like puer, and ruber like ager, and that in the feminine and neuter all the examples are declined alike: bona, lībera, rubra like mēnsa; bonum, līberum and rubrum like templum, and that all these forms contain the full stem, while in the masculine līber and ruber lose the stem vowel o in the Nominative and Vocative singular.
- 2. Adjectives in ius, unlike nouns with this ending, always have ie and il in the Vocative and Genitive singular: Sgregius, excellent; Sgregie, Sgregii.

- 92. Most adjectives in r of the Second Declension are declined like ruber, but the following are declined like liber:
 - 1. Satur, sated; satur, satura, saturum.
 - 2. Compounds in fer and ger: morti-fer, deadly; ali-ger, winged.
- 3. Asper, rough; dexter, right; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; tener, tender; but asper and dexter are sometimes declined like ruber: asper, aspra, asprum; dexter, dextra, dextrum.
- 93. Irregularities. The following nine adjectives have in the singular īus in the Genitive and ī in the Dative:

ūnus sõlus	ūna sõla	ūnum sõlum	one, alone alone	alius alter	alia altera	aliud alterum	another the other
tõtus	tōta	tōtum	whole	uter	utra	utrum	which
ūllus	ülla	ūllum	any	neuter	neutra	neutrum	neither
nüllus	nūlla	nüllum	not any				

- 1. The endings **Ius**, **I**, and **ud**, as in **all-ud**, are regular endings in the Pronominal Declension, from which they are borrowed; see ist-**Ius**, ist-**I**, ist-**ud** (179).
- 2. Alius, regular in the plural, has one or two special irregularities in the singular, as follows:

Nom.	ali us	alia	ali ud 1
Gen.	al īus	al īus	al īus
Dat.	ali ī	a li ī	ali ī
Acc.	alium	ali am	ali ud
Abl.	aliō	ali ā	a li ō

- 3. Alīus, for aliius by contraction, is rare; its place is sometimes supplied by alterius, the Genitive of alter, and sometimes by aliënus, belonging to another.
- 4. In the rest of these adjectives, the irregularity is confined to the Genitive and Dative endings, **īus** and **ī**, but **ī** in **īus** is often shortened by the poets; regularly in **alterius** in dactylic verse.
- 5. The regular forms occasionally occur in the Genitive and Dative singular of some of these adjectives.
- Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque, but i is short in utriusque.
- 7. In alter uter, both parts are declined: alterius utrius, but in alteruter, only the latter part is declined: alterutrius.

¹ Alis for alius and alid for aliud, from the stem ali seen in aliquis, some one, are rare.

THIRD DECLENSION

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES - STEMS IN A CONSONANT AND STEMS IN I

94. The Third Declension, like the First and Second, contains both nouns and adjectives.

Nouns of the Third Declension

- 95. Nouns of the Third Declension may be conveniently divided into four classes:
 - I. Nouns with Consonant Stems.
 - II. Nouns with I-Stems.
 - III. Nouns with Consonant and I-Stems combined.
 - IV. Special Paradigms.1

I. - CONSONANT STEMS

96. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

Princeps, m., leader, chief.

	1	Singular	Case Suffixes
N. V.	princeps	a leader, O leader	8
Gen.	princip is	of a leader	is
Dat.	principī	to, for a leader	ī
Acc.	principem	a leader	em
Abl.	princip e	with, from, by a leader	e
		PLURAL	
N. V.	princip ēs	leaders, O leaders	ēs
Gen.	pr incip um	of leaders	um
Dat.	prīncip ibus	to, for leaders	ibus
Acc.	princip ës	leaders	ēs
Abl.	princip ibus	with, from, by leaders	ibus

- 1. Stem and Case Suffixes. In this paradigm observe that the stem is princip, which becomes princep in the Nominative singular, and that the case suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem.
- 2. Variable Vowel. In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short e or i generally takes the form of e in the Nominative and Vocative singular and that of i in all the other cases. Thus princeps, principis,

¹ For Gender, see 111-124.

mīles, mīlitis (97), and carmen, carminis (100) all have e in the Nominative and Vocative singular and i in all the other cases. See also opus, operis (101).

- 3. In monosyllables in bs the stem ends in b, bi; see urbs, 105.
- 4. For the Locative in this declension, see 108.

97. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

	Lapis, m.,	Aetās, f.,	Mīles, m.,
	stone.	age.	soldier,
	Sing	ULAR	
N. V.	lapi s	aetās	mīle s
Gen.	lapid is	aetāt is	mīlit is
Dat.	lapid ī	aetātī	mīlit ī
Acc.	lapid em	aetāt em	m i lit em
Abl.	lapid e	aetāt e	mīlit e
	PLI	JRAL	
N. V.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Gen.	lapid um	aetāt um	mīlit um
Dat.	lapid ibus	aetātibus	mīlit ibus
Acc.	lapid ēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Abl.	lapid ibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
	Nepos, m.,	Virtūs, f.,	Caput, n.,
	grands on.	virtue.	head.
	Sing	ULAR	
N. V.	nepō s	virtūs	caput -
Gen.	nepōt is	virtūt is	capit is
Dat.	nepōt ī	virtūt ī	capit ī
Acc.	nepōt em	virtūt em	caput
Abl.	nepōt e	virtūte	capit e
	Pur	IRAL ""	7.5
N. V.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Gen.	nepōt um	virtūt um	capitum
Dat.	nepōt ibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus
Acc.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Abl.	nepōt ibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus

1. Stems and Case Suffixes.—In these paradigms observe that the stems are lapid, aetāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt, and capit, and that the case suffixes are the same as those given for labial nouns, except in the neuter caput, which has in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative no case suffix in the singular and a in the plural.

- 2. Miles has the variable vowel e, i, and caput, u, i.
- 3. Like nepõs are declined, cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; sacerdos, priest. For flos, floris, see 101.
- 4. Like virtūs are declined iuventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude. For iūs, iūris, see 101.
- 5. The Nominative of masculine and feminine nouns is formed by adding s to the stem. The dental, d or t, disappears before s: see 53, 1.
 - 6. Neuters in a, stem in at, are of Greek origin; see 110, 5.

98. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

	Dux, m. and f.,	Rādīx, f.,	Rēx, m.,	
	leader.	root.	king.	
		SINGULAR		Case Suffixes
N. V.	du x	rādī x ·	rē x	8
Gen.	ducis	rādīcis	rēg is	is
Dat.	ducī	rādīc ī	rēgī	ī
Acc.	duc em	rādīc em	rēg em	em
Abl.	duce	rādīc e	rēg e	е
		PLURAL		
N. V.	ducēs	rādīc ēs	rēg ēs	ēs
Gen.	duc um	r ā dīc um	rēg um	um
Dat.	duc ibus	rādīc ibus	rēg ibus	ibus
Acc.	ducēs	rādicēs	rēg ēs	ēs
Abl.	duc ibus	rādīc ibus	rēg ibus	ibus

1. Stems and Case Suffixes. — In these paradigms observe that the stems are duc, rādīc, and rēg, that the case suffixes are the same as those given in 96, and that s in the Nominative singular unites with c or g of the stem and forms x, as duc-s, dux; rēg-s, rēx.

99. Stems ending in a Liquid: L or R.

	Cōnsul, m.,	Passer, m.,	Pater, m.,
	consul.	sparrow.	father.
	8	SINGULAR	
N. V.	cōnsul	passer	pater
Gen.	cõnsul is	passer is	patr is
Dat.	cōnsul ī	passer ī	patr ī
Acc.	cōnsul em	passer em	patr em
Abl.	cōnsul e	passere	patre
WAW	K. TAT GRAW -4		

PLURAL

N. V.	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs
Gen.	$c\bar{o}nsul\mathbf{um}$	passer um	p a tr um
Dat.	cõnsul ibus	passer ibus	patr ibus
Acc.	cõnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs
Abl.	cõnsul ibus	passer ibus	patr ibus

- 1. Stems and Case Suffixes. —In these paradigms observe that the stems are consul, passer, and pater, patr, and that they do not take s in the Nominative singular.
- 2. Passer, Pater. Most nouns in er are declined like passer, but those in ter, with a very few exceptions, are declined like pater.
- 3. Four stems in or have the variable vowel, o, u: ebur, ebor-is, ivory; femur, thigh; iecur, liver; rōbur, strength.

100. Stems ending in a Nasal: M or N.

	Hiems, f., winter.	Leō, $m.$, $lion$.	Virgō, f., maiden.	Carmen, n., song.
		SINGULAR		
N. V.	hiem s	leō	virgō	carmen
Gen.	hiem is	leōn is	virgin is	carmin is
Dat.	hiem ī	leōn ī	virgin ī	carmin ī
Acc.	hiem em	leōn em	vi r gin em	carmen
Abl.	hiem e	leõn e	virgin e	carmin e
		PLURAL		
N. V.	hiem ēs	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	carmin a
Gen.	hiem um	leõn um	virgin um	carmin um
Dat.	hiem ibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	carmin ibus
Acc.	hiem ēs	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	carmin a
Abl.	hiem ibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	carmin ibus

- 1. Stems and Case Suffixes. In these paradigms observe that the stems are hiem, leon, virgon, virgin,² and carmen,² that hiem, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative singular, while stems in n take no suffix in those cases, that leon and virgon drop n, and that virgo has the variable vowel o, i, and carmen, e, i.
- Leō and Virgō. Most nouns in ō are declined like leō, but those in dō and gō, with a few others, are declined like virgō.
 - 3. For the Locative in this declension, see 108.

¹ The suffix ter in pa-ter has a weak form tr; hence the stem pa-ter has a weak form pa-tr; see ablaut forms, 21, 325, and 326.

² The stem virgin was originally virgen; carmen becomes carmin.

101. Stems ending in S.

	Flōs, m., flower.	Iūs, n., right.	Opus, n., work.	Corpus, n., body.
		Singular		
N. V.	flōs	iūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	floris	iūr is	oper is	corporis
Dat.	flōr ī	iūr ī ·	oper ī	corporI
Acc.	flör em	iūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flör e	iūre	oper e	corpor e
		Plural		
N. V.	flōr ēs	iūr a	opera	corpora
Gen.	flör um	iūr um	oper um	corporum
Dat.	flōr ibus	iūr ibus	oper ibus	corpor ibus
Acc.	flōr ēs	iūra	oper a	corpora
Abl.	flōr ibus	. iūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus

- 1. Stems and Case Suffixes.—In these paradigms observe that the stems are flos, iūs, opos, opes, corpos, that the Nominative and Vocative singular take no suffix, that s of the stem becomes r between two vowels: flos, floris, and that opus has the variable vowel e, u, and corpus, o, u.
- 2. Like flös are declined glös, sister-in-law; mös, custom; rös, dew. For nepös, see 97.
- 3. Like iūs is declined crūs, leg. Note also mūs, mūris, mouse; tellūs, tellūris, earth.
- 4. Like opus are declined foedus, fūnus, genus, glomus, latus, mūnus, onus, pondus, rūdus, scelus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, vīscus, vulnus. Note also Venus, Veneris, feminine.
- 5. Like corpus are declined decus, dēdecus, facinus, faenus, frīgus, lītus, nemus, pectus, pecus, tempus, tergus.
- 6. A few stems in **os** finally became r-stems, as the r of the oblique cases gradually usurped the place of the original s in the Nominative singular: honos, honoris; honor, honoris.
- 7. A few nouns in ēs, as clādēs, fidēs, nūbēs, sēdēs, etc., lose the original s of the stem in the oblique cases and assume some of the characteristics of i-stems; see 105.

¹ Opus and corpus are both inflected from stems formed by means of an Indo-European suffix with the ablaut forms os, es: the form os, weakened to us, when final, is the basis of the inflection of corpus; the form os, weakened to us, is also seen in the Nom., Voc., and Acc. sing. of opus, but the form es appears in all the other cases.

II. — I-Stems

102. Stems ending in I. — Nouns in is and ēs, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, f., cough.	Nāvis, f., ship.	Īgnis, m., fire.	Auris, f., ear.	
		Singula	R		Case Endings
N. V.	tuss is	nāv is	īgn is	aur is	is
Gen.	tuss is	nāv is	ign is	aur is	is
Dat.	tuss ī	nāv ī	īgn ī	aur ī	ī
Acc.	tuss im	nāv im , nāv em	īgn em	aur em	im, em
Abl.	tuss ī	nāvī, nāve	īgn ī, ign e	aure	ī, e
		PLURA	L		
N. V.	tuss ēs	nāv ēs	īgnēs	aur ēs	ēs
Gen.	tu s s ium	nāv ium	ign ium	aur ium	ium
Dat.	tussibus	nāv ibus	īgn ibus	aur ibus	ibu s
Acc.	{ tuss ēs { tuss īs	nāv ēs nāv īs	ign ës Ign ïs	aur ës aur is	ēs īs
Abl.	tuss ibus	nāv ibus	īgn ibus	aur ibus	ibus.

- 1. Stems and Case Endings. In these paradigms observe that the stems are tussi, nāvi, īgni, and auri, that the case endings contain the characteristic i, and that tussis, nāvis, īgnis, and auris, differ in declension only in the Accusative and Ablative singular, tussis showing the final i of the stem in both of these cases, nāvis sometimes in both, īgnis sometimes in the Ablative but not in the Accusative, auris in neither.
- 2. Like tussis Acc. im, Abl. i are declined būris, plow-tail; sitis, thirst, and in the singular, names of rivers and towns in is, with the Genitive in is: Albis, the Elbe; Tiberis, the Tiber; Hispalis, Seville; Neā-polis, Naples.
- 3. Like nāvis Acc. im, em, Abl. I, e are declined the feminines clāvis, key; febris, fever; messis, harvest; pelvis, basin; puppis, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sēmentis, sowing; turris, tower; strigilis, strigil.

Note. — Araris, or Arar, for Araris, the Saone, and Liger, for Ligeris, the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. I, e.

- 4. Like **ignis** Acc. **em**, Abl. **i**, **e** are declined: **amnis**, *river*; **avis**, *bird*; **bilis**, *bile*; **cīvis**, *citizen*; **classis**, *fleet*; **collis**, *hill*; **finis**, *end*; **orbis**, *circle*; **postis**, *post*; **unguis**, *nail*; and a few others.
- 5. Like auris Acc. em, Abl. e are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under 2, 3, and 4, except canis, dog, and invenis, a youth,

consonant stems which have assumed i in the Nominative singular. Apis, bee; mēnsis, month; and volucris, bird, often have um for ium in the Genitive.

6. Adjectives which have I in the Ablative generally retain I when used substantively, as in the names of months, etc.: Septembrī, in September; Octobrī, in October; ā familiārī, from a friend. But adjectives used as proper names take e: Iuvenālis, Iuvenāle, Juvenāl.

103. Stems ending in I. - Neuters in e, al, and ar.

	Cubīle,	Animal,	Calcar,	
	couch.	animal.	spur.	
		Singular		Case Endings
N. V.	cubīl e	animal	calcar	e —
Gen.	cubīl is	animāl is	calcār is	is
Dat.	cubīl ī	ani:nālī	c a lcā rī	ī
Acc.	cubīl e	animal	calcar	e —
Abl.	cubil i	animāl ī	calcār ī	ī
		PLURAL		
N. V.	cubīl ia	a nimāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Gen.	cubīl ium	animāl ium	calcār ium	ium
Dat.	cubil ibus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus
Acc.	cubīl ia	animāl ia	calcā ria	ia
Abl.	cubil ibus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus

- 1. Paradigms. Observe that the stem ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative singular of cubile, and dropped in the same cases of animal, for *animale, and calcar, for *calcar; see 26, 1, and 40, 1; and that the case endings include the stem ending i.
- 2. A few nouns have e in the Ablative singular, as names of towns in e: **Praeneste**; generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.
- 3. Neuters in ar, aris, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant stems: nectar, nectaris, nectar.

III. - CONSONANT AND I-STEMS COMBINED

104. This class of Latin nouns was produced by a fusion of consonant and i-stems. It consists of i-stems which have lost the final i in the singular and of consonant stems which have assumed i in the plural.

105. Nouns in ēs and nouns in s and x generally preceded by a consonant.

onant.	Nūbēs, f., cloud.	Urbs, f., city.	Arx, f., citadel.
	Sing	ULAR	
N. V.	nūb ēs	urb s	arx 1
Gen.	nūb is	urb is	arcis
Dat.	nūb ī	urb ī	arc ī
Acc.	nūb em	urb em	arcem
Abl.	nūb e	urbe	arce
	PLI	JRAL	
N. V.	nūb ēs	urb ēs	arc ēs
Gen.	nūb ium	urb ium	arc ium
Dat.	nūb ibus	urb ibus	arc ibus
Acc.	∫ nūb ēs \ nūb īs	{ urb ēs { urb īs	arc ēs arc īs
Abl.	nūb ibus	urb ibus	arc ibus

1. Paradigms. — Observe that these nouns are declined in the singular like consonant stems, and in the plural like i-stems.

106. To this class belong the following nouns:

- 1. Nouns in ēs, Gen. in is: caedēs, slaughter; clādēs, disaster; sēdēs, seat; struēs, heap; subolēs, sprout, although several of these are occasionally used as consonant stems, and a very few are generally so used, as ambāgēs (pl.), roundabout way; prolēs, offspring; sēdēs; subolēs; and vātēs. soothsauer.
 - 2. Most nouns in ns and rs 2: cliens, client; cohors, cohort.
- 3. Monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant³: urbs, city; arx, citadel.
- 4. A few monosyllables in s and x preceded by a vowel: dos, down; glis, dormouse; lis, strife; mas, a male; nox, night; vis, force, and generally fraus, fraud, and mus, mouse, and sometimes laus, praise.
- 5. Generally Patrial Nouns in ās, īs, plural in ātēs and ītēs: Arpīnās, pl. Arpīnātēs, the Arpinates; Samnīs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnites.
- 6. Optimātēs, the aristocracy; penātēs, the household gods; sometimes nouns in tās: cīvitās, state, Gen. pl. cīvitātum, sometimes cīvitātium.

 $^{1 \}times in \ arx = cs$. C belongs to the stem, and s is the case suffix.

² Some of these often have um in poetry, and sometimes even in prose, as parens, parent, generally has.

⁸ Except (ops), opis, help, and a few Greek words.

Note.—Carō, flesh; imber, storm; linter, boat; üter, leathern sack; and venter, belly, have ium in the Genitive plural like i-stems.

IV. - SPECIAL PARADIGMS

107.	Sūs, m. and f.,	Bös, m. and f.,	Nix, f.,	Senex, m.,	Vīs, f.,
	swine.	ox, cow.	snow.	old man.	force.

	own.	02, 002.	0,10001	0100 11000101	<i>Jo.</i> 00.
		Sinc	GULAR		
N. V.	នបិ ន	bōs	nix	senex	v īs
Gen.	su is	bov is	niv is	sen is	v īs ¹
Dat.	su ī	bov ī	niv ī	sen ī	vī¹
Acc.	suem	bov em	ni vem	sen em	vim
Abl.	sue	bove	niv e	sen e	νī
		PL	URAL		
N. V.	su ēs	bovēs	niv ēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Gen.	suum	{ bovum boum	niv ium	sen um	vīr ium
Dat.	su ibus su bus	{ bõ bus { bū bus	niv ibus	sen ibus	vī ribus
Acc.	su ēs	bovēs	niv ēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Abl.	su ibus su bus	{ bõ bus { bū bus	niv ibus	sen ibus	vīr ibus

- 1. Stems.—In the paradigms observe that the stems of sūs and bōs are sū and bou; that the diphthong ou of the stem bou becomes ō in bōs and bōbus, ū in būbus, and ov in the other forms; that the stem nigv unites with s and forms nix; that it becomes niv in the other forms of the singular, and assumes i in the plural; and that senex is declined from two stems, senec and sen, and vīs from two, vī and vīsi, which becomes vīri.
- 2. Süs and grüs, crane, the only ü-stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative plural, where grüs is regular, gruibus.
- 3. Iuppiter (Iou-piter; piter = pater) is thus declined: Iuppiter, Iovis, Iovi, Ioven, Iove. The stem Iou became Iū in Iū-piter, which finally became Iuppiter, but it became Iov in the oblique cases.
- 4. Case Suffixes and Case Endings. The following are the original case suffixes and case endings for masculine and feminine nouns, with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

¹ The Genitive and Dative singular, vis and vi, are rare.

Tor I Stome

Tion Commonant Stome

	For Consonant Stems		For 1-	Stems
		SINGULAR		
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	8	8	i-s	is
Gen.	es	is		is ²
Dat.	ai	ī	ei	I
Acc.	em	em	i-m	im ⁸
Abl.	i	е	ī-d	ī
		PLURAL		
N. V.		ēs ¹	ei-es	ēs
Gen.	om	um	i-om	ium
Dat.		ibus ¹	i-bhos	ibus
Acc.	ens	ēs	i-ns	īs ⁸
Abl.	_	ibus ¹	i-bhos	ibus

Note. — In this table observe that consonant stems borrow the endings &s and ibus of the Nominative, Dative, and Ablative plural from i-stems, and that i-stems borrow the ending is of the Genitive singular from consonant stems.

- 5. Neuter nouns have the same case suffixes and endings as masculines and feminines, except in the Nominative and Accusative, where, if consonant stems, they take no suffix in the singular, and the suffix a, from an original \bar{a} , in the plural, and if i-stems, they have the ending e, from an original i, in the singular, and ia, from an original i \bar{a} , in the plural.
 - 6. Early and Rare Endings. The following occur:

es and us in the Gen. sing.: salūtes = salūtis; hominus = hominis.

e in the Dat. sing.: $aere = aer\overline{i}$; $M\overline{a}rte = M\overline{a}rt\overline{i}$.

id in the Abl. sing.: marid = mari.

eis and is in the Nom. plur.: civeis and civis = cives.

eis in the Acc. plur.: cīveis = cīvēs or cīvīs.

LOCATIVE CASE

108. Many names of towns have a Locative singular in i or e, denoting the Place in Which any thing is or is done: Carthāgini, or Carthāgine, at Carthage; Tiburi, or Tibure, at Tibur. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending ibus: Gādibus, at Gades.

¹ Borrowed from i-stems.

² Borrowed from consonant stems.

³ But i-stems often borrow from consonant stems the endings em and 5s for im and is.

GREEK NOUNS

- 109. Many Greek nouns of the Third Declension are entirely regular, but some retain certain peculiarities of the Greek, especially the following Greek forms:
 - 1. A Vocative singular like the stem: Pari-s, Pari; Orpheu-s, Orpheu.
 - 2. A Genitive singular in os: Pallas, Palladis, Pallados.
 - 3. An Accusative singular in a: Pallada.
 - 4. A Nominative plural in es: Arcades.
 - 5. An Accusative plural in as: Arcadas.

110. The following examples illustrate these peculiarities:

D1..... 3 £

	Lampas, f.,	Phryx, m. and f.,	Hērōs, m.,
	torch.	Phrygian.	hero.
		SINGULAR	
N. V.	lampa s	Phryx	hērōs
Gen.	lampadis, lampados	Phryg is	hērō is
Dat.	lampad ī	Phryg ī	hērōī
Acc.	lampadem, lampada	Phrygem, Phryga,	hērō em , hērō a
Abl.	lampad e	Phryg e	hērō e
		Plural	
N. V.	lampadēs, lampades	Phrygēs, Phryges	hērō ēs , hērō es
Gen.	lampadum	Phrygum	hērō um
Dat.	lampadibus	Phrygibus	hērō ibus
Acc.	lampadēs, lampadas	Phrygēs, Phrygas	hērō ēs , hērō as
Abl.	l a mpad ibus	Phryg ibus	hērð ibus
	Cotys, m.	Paris, m.	Orpheus, m.
		SINGULAR 1	
Nom.	Cotys	Paris	Orpheus
Voc.	Coty	Pari	Orpheu
Gen.	Cotyis	Parid is	Orphei, Orpheos
Dat.	Cotyī	Parid ī	Orphe ō , Orphei
Acc.	Cotym	Paridem, Parim, Parin	Orpheum, Orphea
Abl.	Cotye	Paride, Parī	Orphe ō

1. In these paradigms the stems are lampad, Phryg, hērō, Coty, Parid, Pari, and Orpheu.

¹ As proper names, these words have only the singular in general use.

- 2. Observe that these paradigms fluctuate in certain cases between the Latin and the Greek forms: Lampadis, lampados; hērōēs, hērōas; and between different declensions: between Decl. II., Orpheī, Orpheō, Orpheum, and Decl. III., Orpheu, Orpheos, Orpheōi, Orphea.
- 3. Greek feminines in ō may be declined either with ūs in the Genitive and with ō in the other cases, as Dīdō, Dīdūs, Dīdō, etc., or regularly from the stem in ōn, as Dīdō, Dīdōnis, Dīdōnī, Dīdōnen, Dīdōne.
- 4. Nouns in clēs are declined as follows: Periclēs: Voc. Periclēs, Periclē; Gen. Periclī; Dat. Periclī, or Pericli; Acc. Periclem, Periclēn, or Periclea; Abl. Pericle.
- 5. Greek neuters in a, Gen. in atis or atos, often have is for ibus in the Dative and Ablative plural, and sometimes orum for um in the Genitive plural: poëma, poem; poëmatis or poëmatibus; poëmatorum or poëmatum.
- 6. Vocative Singular. Greek nouns in is, ys, and eus generally have the Vocative singular like the stem, as in the paradigms; but those in as, Gen. in antis, have the Vocative in ā: Atlās, Atlā.
- 7. In the Genitive plural, the ending on occurs in a few titles of books: Metamorphoses (title of a poem), Metamorphoseon.
- 8. In the Dative and Ablative plural the ending si, sin, occurs in poetry: Troadēs, Troasin.
- 9. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative have os in the singular and ē in the plural: melos, melē, song.

GENDER AS DETERMINED BY THE ENDINGS OF NOUNS

I. Masculines

111. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in ō, or, ōs, er, and es, are masculine:

Sermō, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; gurges, whirlpool.

- 112. Nouns in ō are masculine, except those in dō and gō, and abstract and collective nouns in iō, most of which are feminine; see 116.
 - 1. Carō, flesh, and the Greek Argō and ēchō are feminine.
 - 113. Nouns in or and ōs are masculine, except
 - 1. The Feminines: arbor, arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry.
- 2. The Neuters: ador, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble; ōs, mouth.

- 114. Nouns in er and es are masculine, except
- 1. The Feminines: linter, boat; merges, sheaf; seges, crop; teges, mat.
- 2. The Neuters: cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tüber, tumor; über, udder; a few names of trees and plants in er: acer, maple tree; papāver, poppy.

Note. — Aes, copper, and ver, spring, are neuter.

II. Feminines

115. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in do, go, io; ās, ēs, is, ūs, ys, x, and in s preceded by a consonant are feminine:

Grandō, hail; orīgō, origīn; ratiō, reason; cōntiō, an assembly; aetās, age; nūbēs, cloud; nāvis, ship; virtūs, virtue; chlamys, cloak; pāx, peace; urbs, city.

116. Nouns in dō and gō, and abstract and collective nouns in iō, are feminine, except cardō, hinge; ōrdō, rank; harpagō, grappling hook; ligō, mattock; margō, border, which are masculine.

Notes.—1. Twenty-five or thirty nouns in io, chiefly denoting material objects, are masculine, as pugio, poniard; unio, pearl; papilio, butterfly.

- 2. Nouns in do, go, and io are exceedingly numerous, nearly three hundred in all.
 - 117. Nouns in as and es are feminine, except
- 1. The Masculines: ās, the as, a coin; acīnacēs, scimiter; celēs, a racer; lebēs, chaldron; māgnēs, magnet; pariēs, wall; pēs, foot; quadrupēs, quadruped; veprēs, thorn bush; and Greek nouns in ās, Gen. in antis: adamās, adamant.
 - 2. The Neuter: vās, vessel.

Note. — Most nouns in as, Gen. in adis, are feminine, but dromas, dromedary, and vas, surety, are masculine.

- 118. Nouns in is are feminine, except the following masculines:
- 1. Nouns in nis and guis: Ignis, fire; sanguis, blood.
- 2. Nouns in is, Gen. in eris: cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; võmis, plowshare.
 - 3. The following:

axis, axle	fascis, bundle	piscis, <i>fish</i>
būris, plow tail	fūstis, <i>cudgel</i>	postis, post
caulis, stalk	lapis, stone	sentis, <i>brier</i>
collis, hill	mēnsis, month	torris, brand
ēnsis, <i>sword</i>	orbis, <i>circle</i>	vectis, lever

4. Sometimes a few other nouns in is.

Note. - Nouns in is are very numerous, nearly one hundred and fifty in all.

- 119. Nouns in us and ys are feminine, except
- 1. The Masculines: mūs, mouse, Greek nouns in pūs: tripūs, tripod, and names of mountains in ys: Othrys.
- 2. The Neuters: crus, leg; ius, right; pus; rus, the country; tus, incense.

Note. - Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, are feminine.

- 120. Nouns in x are feminine, except the following masculines:
- 1. Greek Masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- 2. Nouns in ex, except the feminines: forfex, shears; imbrex, hollow tile; nex, death; supellex, furniture.
- 3. Calix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; tradux, vinelayer, and a few nouns in yx.
- 121. Nouns in s preceded by a consonant are feminine, except the following masculines:
- 1. Dēns, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; pons, bridge; generally, adeps, fat; and rudens, cable.
- 2. Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriens (sol), east; confluens (amnis), confluence; tridens (raster), trident; quadrans (as), quarter.
 - 3. Sometimes forceps, forceps; serpens, serpent; stirps, stock.

III. Neuters

122. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in a, e, i, y, c, l, n, t, ar, ur, and us are neuter:

Poēma, poem; mare, sea; sināpī, mustard; misy, kind of mushroom; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; nectar, nectar; ebur, ivory; corpus, body.

- 123. Nouns in 1, n, and ar are neuter, except mugil, mullet; sal, salt; sol, sun; pecten, comb; salar, trout, which are masculine.
 - 124. Nouns in ur and us are neuter, except
- 1. The Masculines: furfur, bran; turtur, turtle dove; vultur, vulture; lepus, hare.
 - 2. The Feminine: pecus (pecudis), herd of cattle.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

- 125. Adjectives of the Third Declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the Nominative singular three different forms one for each gender: I-Stems.
- II. Those which have two forms the masculine and feminine being the same: Consonant and I-Stems.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders: Consonant and I-Stems.
- 126. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in 1, and are declined as follows:

Ācer, ācris, ācre, sharp.

	Sin	GULAR				
Masculine Feminine Neuter						
N. V.	ācer	ācr is	ācre			
Gen.	ācris	ācr is	ācris			
Dat.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī			
Acc.	ācrem	ācr em	ācre			
Abl.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī			
	Pr	LURAL				
N. V.	ācrēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia			
Gen.	ācr ium	ācrium	ācrium			
Dat.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus			
Acc.	ācr ēs , ācr īs	ācr ēs, ācrīs	ācria			
Abl.	ācribus	ācribus	ācr ibus			

- 1. Here observe that the stem of acer, acris, acre is acri, and that the Ablative singular ends in I.
- 2. Adjectives in **er** of this class are regularly declined like **ācer**, but **celer**, **celeris**, **celere**, **swift**, retains the **e** before **r**, and when used as a substantive has **um** in the Genitive plural. **Volucer**, **winged**, sometimes has **um**
- 3. In the poets and in early Latin, the form in er, as acer, is sometimes feminine, and the form in is, as acris, is sometimes masculine.
- 127. Adjectives of Two Endings are either from 1-stems or from 5-stems, and are declined as follows:

N. V. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.

N. V. Gen.

Dat.

Acc.

Abl.

Trīstis, trīste, sad.		Trīstior, trīstius, sadder.		
	SINGULA	AR		
M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F	Neut.	
trīst is	trīst e	tristior	tristius	
trīst is	trīst is	trīstiōr is	trīstiōr is	
 tristī	tristī		tristiōr ī -	
trīst em	triste	trīstiōr em	trīstius	
trist ï	trīst ī	trīstiōre (ī) ²	trīstiōre (Ī) ²	
	Plura	L		
trīst ēs	trīst ia	trīstiōr ēs	trīstiōr a	
trīst ium	trīst ium	trīstiōr um	trīstiōr um	

trīstiōr**ibus**

tristiōribus

trīstiōr**ēs** (**īs**) 2

trīstiōr**ibus**

trīstiōribus

trīstiōra

1. Observe that trīstis and trīste have ī in the Ablative singular; that otherwise trīstis is declined like īgnis, and trīste like cubīle (102, 103).

trīst**ibus**

tristibus

2. Tristior is the comparative (149) of tristis.

trīstēs, trīstīs trīstia

tristibus

trīst**ibus**

3. Like trīstior, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. sing. in e, sometimes in I, the Nom. plur. neuter in a, and the Gen. plur. in um. But the comparative plüs, more, is declined as follows:

•	SINGULAR		Plur	AL
	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.		plūs	plū rēs	plūr a
Gen.	_	plū ris	plūr ium	plūr ium
D. Abl.	_	_	 plūr ibus	plū ribus
Acc.	_	plūs	plūr ēs	plūr a

- 4. Complüres is declined like the plural of plüres, though it admits complüria for complüra in the neuter.
- 128. Adjectives of One Ending are declined partly from consonant stems and partly from i-stems. Most of them end in sor x; a few in 1 or r.

	Audāx, audacious.		Fēlīx, happy.			
	SINGULAR					
N. V. Gen.	M. and F. audāx audāc is	Neut. audāx audāc is	M. and F. fēlīx fēlīc is	Neu t. fēlīx fēlīc is		

¹ Final i becomes e in triste, and the stem ending s becomes r between vowels, and finally this r usurps the place of s in the Nominative masculine. In the neuter Nominative and Accusative, tristles is weakened to tristius.

The forms with the inclosed endings, tristioni and tristionis, are very rate.

Dat.	audācī	audācī	fēlīcī	fēlic ī			
Acc.	audāc em	audāx	fēlic em	fēlīx			
Abl.	audāc ī (e)	audācī (e)	fēlicī (e)	fēlicī (e)			
Au.	audaci (e)	addact (e)	Telici (e)	Teller (a)			
Plural							
N. V.	audācēs	audāc ia	fēlīcēs	fēlīc ia			
Gen.	audāc ium	audāc ium	fēlic ium	fēlīc ium			
Dat.	audāc ibus	audāc ibus	fēlic ibus	fēlīc ibus			
Acc.	audāc ēs (īs)	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs (īs)	fēlīc ia			
Abl.	audāc ibus	audāc ibus	fēlīcibus	fēlīc ibus			
	Amāns, loving.		Prūdēns, pr	Prūdēns, prudent.			
Singular							
	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.			
N. V.	amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns			
Gen.	amant is	amant is	prūdent is	prūdent is			
Dat.	amant ī	amant ī	prūdent ī	prūdent ī			
Acc.	amant em	amāns	prūdent em	prūdēns			
Abl.	amante (I)	amant e (ī)	prūdent ī (e)	prūdent ī (e)			
		PLURA	L				
N. V	amantēs	amant ia	prūdent ēs	prūdent ia			
Gen.	amant ium	amant ium	prūdent ium	prūdent ium			
Dat.	amant ibus	amant ibus	prūdent ibus	prūdent ibus			
Acc.	amantēs (īs)	a mant ia	prūdent ēs (īs)	prūdent ia			
Abl.	amantibus	amant ibus	prūdent ibus	prūdent ibus			
	Vetus, old.		Memor, mi	Memor, mindful.			
	,	SINGULA	•				
	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.			
N. V.	vetus ¹	vetus	memor	memor			
Gen.	veter is	veter is	memor is	memor is			
Dat.	veter ī	veter ī	memor ī	memor ī			
Acc.	veter em	vetus	memorem	memor			
Abl.	vetere (I)	vetere (I)	memorī	memor ī			
		Plura	="				
N. V.	veter ēs	veter a	memor ēs	 .			
Gen.	veterum	veterum	memorum				
Dat.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	-			
Acc.	veterēs (īs)	vetera	memor ēs (īs)	-			
Abl.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus				

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ The stem of vetus, veteris, is vetos, vetes, but the endings os and es are only ablaut forms of the same suffix.

- 1. The participle amans differs in declension from the adjective prudens only in the Ablative singular, where the participle usually has the ending e and the adjective I. Participles used as adjectives generally have I.
- 2. A few adjectives have only e in general use in the Ablative singular, especially those in es, Gen. in itis or idis: āles, dēses, dīves, sōspes, superstes, and caelebs, compos, impos, pauper, princeps, pūbes.
- 129. Neuter Plural. Many adjectives from the nature of their signification are rare in the neuter. Some of these, like memor, lack the neuter plural; all others have the ending ia, in the Nominative and Accusative, except über, übera, fertile, and vetus, vetera.
- 130. Genitive Plural. Most adjectives of the Third Declension have ium in the Genitive plural, but the following have um:
- 1. Adjectives compounded with substantives which have um: inops (opum), inopum, helpless; quadrupēs, quadrupedum, four-footed.
- 2. Those which have only e in the Ablative singular (128, 2): pauper, paupere, pauperum, poor; sõspes, sõspite, sõspitum, safe; compos, compote, compotum, master of.
- 3. Those which have the Genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame, and a few others.
- 4. The poets and late writers often use um in words which have ium in classical prose.

FOURTH DECLENSION

U-Nouns

131. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in us and ū. Those in us are masculine, those in ū are neuter. They are declined as follows:

Frūctus, fruit. Cornū, horn.

		SINGULAR	Case End	e Endings	
N. V.	frūctu s	cornū	us	ū	
Gen.	frūct ūs	corn ūs	ūs	ūs	
Dat.	f rūct uī	cornū	uī	ū	
Acc.	frūct um	cornū	um	ũ	
Abl.	früct ü	corn ū	ũ	ū	
		PLURAL			
N. V.	frūct ūs	cornua	ūs	ua	
Gen.	fr ūct uum	cornuum	uum	uum	
Dat.	frūctibus	corn ibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (u bus)	
Acc.	frūct ūs	cornua	ធីន	ua	
Abl.	frūctibus	corn ibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (uhus)	

- 1. Here the stems are fructu and cornu, and the case endings contain the characteristic u, weakened to i in ibus, but retained in ubus.
- 2. A few nouns retain ubus in the Dative and Ablative plural: regularly tribus, tribe; generally acus, needle; arcus, bow; artus, joint; lacus, lake; partus, birth; and sometimes portus, harbor; specus, cave; verū, spit; and a few other words.
- 3. In early Latin the endings uis, uos, and I occur in the Genitive singular: früctuis, of fruit; senātuos and senātī, of the senate. Senātī is found even in Cicero. The Genitive in I is common in Plautus and Terence, as adventī, früctī, gemitī, quaestī, etc.
- 4. A Dative in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, the regular form in nouns in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, also occurs in nouns in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ s, but chiefly in poetry: früct $\bar{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{früctul}$.
- 5. The following are the original case endings, with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

		Singular		
	Masc	culine	Net	iter ·
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	u-s	us	u	ũ ¹
Gen.	eu-s	ūs	eu-s	üs
Dat.	u-ai	uī 2	eu	ũ²
Acc.	u-m	um	u	. ũ 1
Abl.	ū-d 8	ũ	ũ-d ⁸	ũ
	•	Plural		
N. V.	$\left. egin{array}{l} \mathbf{eu} ext{-es} \ \mathbf{ou} ext{-es} \end{array} ight\}$	üs	u-ā	ua
Gen.	u-om	uum	u-om	uum
Dat.	u-bhos	ubus, ibus	u-bhos	ubus, ibus
Acc.	u-ns	üs	u-ā	ua
Abl.	u-bhos	u bus, ibus	u-bhos	ubus, ibus

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

132. The following nouns in us are feminine: acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house; Īdūs, Ides; manus, hand; porticus, portico; quInquātrūs, feast of Minerva; tribus, tribe.

¹ The ū in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters is of uncertain origin, perhaps a plural or dual formation.

² The Dative in **ū**, used both as masculine and as neuter, is in origin a Locative formation.

⁸ The ending U-d, from which U was derived, was not inherited, but was formed after the analogy of the Ablative ending 5-d from o stems, as in Gnaiv-5-d.

- 1. The only neuter nouns in common use are cornii, genii, and verii. but neuter forms are sometimes found in certain cases of other words, as artua from artus.
- 133. Second and Fourth Declensions. Some nouns are partly of the Fourth Declension and partly of the Second.
- 1. Domus, f., house, has a Locative, domi, at home, and is otherwise declined as follows:

•	SINGULAR	PLURAL
N. V.	dom us	dom ūs
Gen.	dom ūs	dom uum, dom õrum
Dat.	dom uī, dom ō	dom ibus
Acc.	dom ūm	dom ūs, dom ōs
Abl.	dom ū , dom ō	dom ibus

2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fīcus, laurus, pīnus, though generally of the Second Declension, sometimes take those cases of the Fourth which end in us, us, and u: N. V. laurus; Gen. lauri, laurūs; Dat. laurō; Acc. laurum; Abl. laurō, laurū, etc. So also colus, distaff. Quercus, oak, regularly of the Fourth Declension, has quercorum in the Gen. plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION

E-Nouns

134. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in ēs and are feminine. They are declined as follows:

	Dies, day.	Rēs, thing.	
	Sing	ULAR	Case Endings
N. V.	di ēs	r ēs	ēs
Gen.	di ëī	r ĕī	ēī
Dat.	di ëī	r ĕī	ē1
Acc.	di em	rem	· em
Abl.	diē	r ē	8
	PL	URAL	
N. V.	di ēs	r ēs	ēs
Gen.	di ērum	r ērum	ērum
Dat.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus
Acc.	di ēs	rēs	ēs -
Abl.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus

- 1. The case endings here given contain the characteristic **\(\xi\)**, which appears in all the cases. It is shortened generally in the ending **\(\xi\)**, when preceded by a consonant, and regularly in the ending **\(\xi\)**.
- 2. The Genitive and Dative singular sometimes end in **5**, and sometimes, though rarely, in **I** for **5I**, chiefly in poetry: aci**5**, di**5**, fid**5**, di**I**, faci**I**. ¹

Note. — These forms in § are Locatives in origin, and they have retained their original Locative meaning in a few phrases found in early Latin, as dis septimi, on the seventh day; dis crastini, on the morrow. Cottidis, hodis, pridis, and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

- 3. In early Latin the Genitive sometimes ends in es: dies, of a day.
- 4. Dies and res are the only nouns in this declension complete in all their parts. In other nouns the plural forms, especially the Genitive, Dative, and Ablative, are rare in the best writers.
- 5. The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		Plural	
	Original form	Classical form	Original . form	Classical form
N. V.	ē-s	ēs	ē-es	ēs
Gen.	ē-s, ē-ī	ēs, ĕī	ē-som	ērum
Dat.	ē-ai	ĕī	ē-bhos	ēbus
Acc.	ē-m	em	ē-ns	ēs
Abl.	ē-d 2	ē	ē-bhos	ēbus

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

135. Dies, day, and merīdies, mid-day, are masculine, though dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially when it means a definite or fixed time.

136. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER

1. Gender independent of endings; common to all declensions.

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Names of Males, of	Names of Females, of	Indeclinable Nouns, In-
Rivers, Winds, and	Countries, Towns,	finitives, and Clauses
Months	Islands, and Trees	used as Nouns

¹ Acië, Gen. and Dat. of aciës, a sharp edge; facii, of faciës, appearance.

² The primitive ending was probably ēd, though only ē is found.

^{*} For exceptions, see 68, 1; 69, 1.

2. Gender determined by Nominative ending.¹

	FIRST DECLENSION	
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
ās, ēs	a, ē	l –
	SECOND DECLENSION	
er, ir, us, os, ōs	_	um, on
	THIRD DECLENSION	
ō, or, ōs, er, es, ex-	dō, gō, iō ; ās, ēs, is,	a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t,
cept dō, gō, and iō	ūs , ys , x , s preceded by a consonant	ar, ur, us
	FOURTH DECLENSION	•
us	`	į t.
	FIFTH DECLENSION	
1	ēs	l –

INDECLINABLE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

- 137. A very few nouns and adjectives are indeclinable, having but one form for all cases. The following are the most important:
 - 1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, bēta, etc.
- 2. Fās, right; nefās, wrong; nihil, nothing; Instar, likeness; māne, morning.²
- 3. A very few adjectives: frügī, frugal, good; nēquam, worthless; mīlle, thousand; potis, able.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

- 138. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the singular. To these belong
- The names of Persons and many names of Places: Cicero, Caesar, Rôma, Rome; Graecia, Greece; but Proper names admit the plural to designate Families or Classes: Scipiones, the Scipios; Caesares, the Caesars.

¹ For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

² But these nouns are not only indeclinable, but also defective, as they are regularly used only in the Nominative and Accusative singular, though mane also occurs as a Locative Ablative.

- 2. Most Abstract nouns: fides, faith; iustitia, justice; but many abstract nouns admit the plural to designate instances, or kinds of the quality: avaritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds. In the poets the plural is often used in the sense of the singular.
- 3. The names of Materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron; but the plural may be used to designate pieces of the material, or articles made of it; aera, vessels of copper.
- 4. A few special nouns: merīdiēs, mid-day; specimen, example; supellex, furniture; vēr, spring; vespera, evening, etc.
- 139. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used only in the plural. To these belong
- 1. Certain Personal Appellatives applicable to Classes: māiōrēs, fore-fathers; posterī, descendants; geminī, twins; līberī, children. An individual member of such a class may be denoted by tinus ex with the plural: tinus ex līberīs, one of the children, or a child.
- 2. Many names of Cities: Athēnae, Athens; Thēbae, Thebes; Delphī, Delphi.
- 3. Many names of Festivals: Bacchānālia, the Bacchanalian Festival; Olympia, the Olympian (fames. Here the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.
- 4. Certain special nouns: arma, arms; dīvitiae, riches; exsequiae, rites; exuviae, spoils; Īdūs, Ides; indūtiae, truce; Insidiae, ambuscade; mānēs, shades of the dead; minae, threats; moenia, walls; mūnia, duties; nūptiae, nuptials; reliquiae, remains.
- 140. Plural with Change of Meaning.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

aedēs, temple
auxilium, help
carcer, prison, barrier
castrum, castle, hut
comitium, place of assembly
copia, plenty, force
facultās, ability
finis, end
fortuna, fortune
grātia, gratitude, favor
hortus, garden

aedēs, (1) temples, (2) a house 1
auxilia, auxiliaries
carcerēs, barriers of a race course
castra, camp
comitia, the assembly held in the comitium
cōpiae, (1) stores, (2) troops
facultātēs, wealth, means
fīnēs, borders, territory
fortūnae, possessions, wealth
grātiae, thanks
horti, (1) gardens, (2) park

¹ Aedes and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

impedimentum, hindrance littera, letter of alphabet

lūdus, play, sport
mōs, custom
nātālis (diēs), birthday
opera, work, service
pars, part
rōstrum, beak of ship
sāl, salt

impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baggage
litterae, (1) letters of the alphabet, (2) epistle,
writing, letters, literature
lüdi, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle
mõrēs, manners, character
nātālēs, pedigree, parentage
operae, workmen
partēs, (1) parts, (2) a party
rõstra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribune
salēs, witty sayings

- 141. Many nouns, entire in the singular, lack certain forms of the plural. Thus:
- 1. Most nouns of the Fifth Declension, a few of the Fourth, and several monosyllabic neuters of the Third, are seldom, if ever, used in the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative plural: aciës, sharpness; effigiës, likeness; speciës, appearance, etc.; metus, fear; situs, situation, etc.; fär, corn; fel, gall; mel, honey, etc.
- 2. Many nouns, especially monosyllables, otherwise entire, lack the Genitive plural: nex, death; pāx, peace; pix, pitch; cor, heart; cos, whetstone; sāl, salt; sōl, sun; lūx, light.
- 142. Some nouns, entire in the plural, lack certain forms of the singular. The following are the most important:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
_	opis		opem	ope	help
_	vicis 1		vicem	vice	change
	-	preci	precem	prece	praye r
_	dapis ¹	dapī	dapem	dape	food
_	frūgis	frūgī	frügem	frūge	fruit

143. A few nouns are used only in certain cases of the singular:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
fors	_		-	forte	chance
luēs	_	_	luem	lue	pestilence

- 1. A few verbal nouns in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, and a few others, have only the Ablative singular in general use: iuss $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, by order; mand $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ t $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, by command; rog $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ t $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, by request; sponte, by choice, etc.
- 144. Defective Adjectives. A few adjectives, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the plural, while others lack the Nomi-

¹ Defective also in the Genitive plural.

native singular, or at least the masculine form of the Nominative singular: complüres, several; paucī, few; plērīque, most; (cēterus), cētera, cēterum, the other, the rest; (lūdicer), lūdicra, lūdicrum, sportive; (sōns), sontis, guilty; (sēminex), sēminecis, half dead. The inclosed forms are not in good use.

HETEROCLITES

- 145. A few nouns, called Heteroclites (heteroclita) are partly of one declension and partly of another.
- 1. Of the Second and Fourth Declensions are a few nouns in us: domus, house; laurus, laurel tree, etc.; see 133, 1 and 2.
- 2. Of the Second and Third Declensions are iugerum, an acre, generally of the Second Declension in the singular, and of the Third in the plural: iugerum, iugeri; plural, iugera, iugerum: vas, a vessel, of the Third Declension in the singular, and of the Second in the plural: vas, vasis; plural, vasa, vasorum.
- Note. Plural names of Festivals in **ālia**, as **Bacchānālia**, **Sāturnālia**, regularly of the Third Declension, sometimes have the Genitive plural in **ōrum**. Ancīle, a shield, and a few other words, have the same peculiarity.
- 3. Of the Third and Fifth Declensions are requies, rest, not used in the plural or in the Dative singular, but having in the other oblique cases the forms both of the Third and of the Fifth Declension; and fames, hunger, regularly of the Third Declension, but with fame in the Ablative.
- 4. Many nouns of four syllables have one form in ia of the First Declension, and one in ies of the Fifth Declension: lūxuria, lūxuries, luxury, māteria, māteries, material.
- 5. Many Verbal nouns have one form in us of the Fourth Declension, and one in um of the Second Declension: conatus, conatum, attempt; Eventus, Eventum, event.
- 6. Many nouns have only one approved form in the best prose, but admit another in poetry and in post-Augustan writers: iuventūs (ūtis), youth; poetic, iuventa (ae): senectūs (ūtis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertās (ātis), poverty; poetic, pauperiēs (ēi).
- 146. Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the First and Second Declensions, and one in is and e, of the Third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; examimus and examimis, lifeless.

¹ From ετερος, another, and κλίσις, inflection, i.e. of different declensions.

HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS

- 147. Heterogeneous (heterogenea 1) Nouns are partly of one gender and partly of another. Thus:
- 1. Some Masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: iocus, m., jest; plural, iocī, m., ioca, n.: locus, m., place; plural, locī, m., topics, loca, n., places.
- 2. Some Feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: carbasus, f., linen; plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.: margarīta, f., pearl; plural, margarītae, f., margarīta, n.: ostrea, f., oyster; plural, ostreae, f., ostrea, n.
- 3. Some Neuters become masculine in the plural: caelum, n., heaven; plural, caelī, m.
- 4. Some Neuters generally become masculine, but sometimes remain neuter: frēnum, n., bridle; plural, frēnī, m.; frēna, n.: rāstrum, n., rake; plural, rāstrī, m.; rāstra, n.
- 5. Some Neuters become feminine in the plural: epulum, n., feast; plural, epulae, f.

Note.—Some heterogeneous nouns are also heteroclites, as epulum, epulae, just given.

148. Some nouns of the Second Declension have one form in us, masculine, and one in um, neuter: clipeus, clipeum, shield; commentarius, commentarium, commentary.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

- 149. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altlor, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.
 - 150. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison.
 - I. Terminational Comparison by endings.
- II. Adverbial Comparison by the adverbs magis, more, and maxime. most.

¹ From ετερος, another, and γένος, gender, i.e. of different genders.

I. Terminational Comparison

151. Adjectives and participles used as adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive, stripped of its final vowel, the following

Endings of Comparison

	COMPARATIVE		\$		
	M. and F. ior	Neut. ius	Masc. issimus	Fem. issima	Neut. issimum ¹
altus,	altior,	alt ius ,	alt issimus ,	alt issima ,	alt issimum
high,	higher, or	too high	highest, or very	high	
dūrus,	dūr io r,	dūr ius ,	dūr issimus ,	dūr issima ,	dūr issimum
hard,	harder		hardest		
lev is ,	levior,	levius,	lev issimus ,	lev issima,	lev issimum
light,	lighter		lightest		
amāns,	amantior,	amant ius ,	amantissimus,	amantissima,	amant issimum
loving,	more lovi	ng	-most loving		

- 152. Irregular Superlatives. Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:
 - 1. Adjectives in er add rimus to this ending:2

ācer,	ācri or ,	ācerrimus,	sharp, .	sharper,	sharpest
asper,	asperior,	asperrimus,	rough,	rougher,	roughest
celer,	celer ior ,	celerrimus,	swift,	swifter,	swiftest

2. But note the following:

dexter, right, on the right, dexterior, dextimus mātūrus, mature, mātūrior, mātūrissimus, mātūrimus

3. Five adjectives in ilis add limus to the stem, stripped of its final vowel:⁸

¹ The Latin has three different superlative suffixes: (1) mus, seen in summus, highest; (2) timus, seen in ci-timus, nearest; op-timus, best; and (3) is-simus, the usual suffix, compounded of is, the weak form of the comparative suffix, ios, ior, and simus, of uncertain origin, but probably a new formation after the analogy of certain words in simus, as pes-simus, worst; plu-rimus for *plū-simus, most; māximus for *mag-simus, greatest; vīcē-simus, twentieth; trīcē-simus, thirtieth.

² The suffix rimus is from is, the comparative suffix, and mus, imus, the superlative suffix: *ācr-is-imus, which becomes *ācer-s-imus, ācer-rimus; r is vocalized, er; i is dropped and s is assimilated to the preceding r; see 54, 2.

The suffix limus, like rimus, is from is-imus: *facil-is-imus, *facil-s-imus, facil-limus, s assimilated to a preceding 1; see 54, 2.

facilis. facilior. facillimus. easy. easier. easiest difficilis. difficilior. difficillimus. difficult, more difficult, etc. similis. similior. simillimus. like. more like. most like more unlike, dissimilis. dissimilior. dissimillimus. unlike. most, etc. humilis, humilior, humillimus, lowest low, lower.

153. Compounds of dicus and volus form their comparatives and superlatives from the corresponding participial stems, dicent and volent, and compounds of ficus sometimes follow their analogy:

maledicus, maledicēns, slanderous, maledicentior, maledicentissimus benevolus, benevolēns, benevolent, benevolentior, benevolentissimus honorificus, honorable,

Note. - Maledicens and benevolens are found in early Latin.

154. Special irregularities of comparison sometimes arise from the use of different stems:

bon us ,	mel ior ,	op timus ,	good,	better,	be st
mal us ,	pē ior,	pes simus ,	bad_{χ}	worse,	worst
māgn us,	mā ior ,	mā ximus ,	great,	greater,	greatest
parv us,	min or,	min imus,	small,	smaller,	smallest

1. Here belongs multus, which lacks the comparative in the masculine and feminine singular:

```
multus, —, plūrimus, multa, —, plūrima, much, more, most multum, plūs, plūrimum,
```

2. Note also:

frūgī, frūgālior, frūgālissimus, frugal, more frugal, most frugal nēquam, nēquior, nēquissimus, worthless, more worthless, most worthless

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON

- 155. In a few adjectives the Positive is either entirely wanting, or used only in special constructions:
 - 1. Positive wanting:

citerior,	ci timus ,	on this side, near,	nearest
dēterior,	dēter rimus,	worse,	worst
interior,	in timus ,	inner,	inmost
ōcior,	ōcissimus,	swifter,	swifte s t
prior,	pr īmus,	former,	first
propior,	pro ximus ,	nearer,	nearest
ulterior,	ul timus,	farthe r ,	farthest

2. Positive used only in special constructions:

(exterus).1 exterior. extrēmus, and extimus. outer. outermost (inferus).2 infimus, and imus. inferior. lower. lornest postrēmus, and postumus,4 (posterus),8 posterior, later. last, last-born suprēmus, and summus, (superus),2 superior, higher, highest

156. A few adjectives lack the Comparative:

diversus,	 ,	dīvers issimus ,	diverse,	most diverse
fals us ,	 ,	fals issimus ,	false,	most false
inclut us,	— ,	inclut issimus ,	renowned,	most renowned
invīt us ,	- ,	invīt issimus,	unwilling,	most unwilling
merit us ,	—,	merit issimus ,	deserving,	most deserving
nov us ,	,5	nov issimus ,	new,	last
sacer,	—, ⁶	sacerrimus,	sacred,	most sacred
vetus,	—, ⁶	veterrimus,	old,	oldest

157. Many adjectives lack the Superlative:

1. Many verbals in ilis and bilis:

agil is ,	agil io r,	·—,	agile,	more agile
docil is ,	docilior,	_ ,	docile,	more docile
laudābil is ,	laudābil ior ,	,	laudable,	more laudable
optābil is ,	optābil ior ,	,	desirable,	more desirable

2. A few special adjectives:

alacer,	alacrior,	— ,	active,	more active
diūturn us ,	diūturn ior ,	— ,	lasting,	more lasting
longinqu us,	longinqu ior ,	—,	distant,	more distant
prōclīv is ,	prōclīv ior ,	—,	prone,	more prone
prōn us,	prōn ior,	—,	inclined,	more inclined
propinqu us ,	propinqu ior ,	,	near,	nearer
salūtār is ,	salūtār ior ,	 ,	salutary,	more salutary

¹ Nātionēs exterae, foreign peoples, occurs in classical prose.

² Omnia supera. infera, all things above and below; and ad superos, to those above, and ad inferos, to those below, occur in classical prose.

⁸ Posterus occurs in a few expressions of time, postero dio, on the following day; in posterum diem, for the next day; in posterum, for the future. Note also posteri, descendants.

⁴ Postumus means late born, or last born.

⁵ The comparative of novus is supplied by recentior, from recens, and the superlative, in the sense of newest, by recentissimus.

⁶ The comparative of sacer is supplied by sanctior, from sanctus, and that of vetus by vetustior, from vetustus.

158. Three adjectives supply the Superlative as follows:

adulēscēns, adulēscentior, minimus nātū, young, younger, youngest iuvenis, iūnior, minimus nātū, young, younger, youngest senex, senior, māximus nātū, old, older, oldest

II. Adverbial Comparison — by the Adverbs magis and māximē

159. Most adjectives in eus, ius, and uus, except those in quus are compared by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and māximē, most:

idōneus. magis idoneus. māximē idōneus.1 suitable more suitable most suitable necessārius. magis necessārius, māximē necessārius. more necessary necessary most necessary arduus. magis arduus. māximē arduus. arduousmore arduous most arduous

- 1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valdē, oppidō, very; imprīmīs, or in prīmīs, apprīmē, in the highest degree. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very; perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclārus, very illustrious.
- 2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used: with the comparative etiam, even, multō, longē, much, far; etiam diligentior, even more diligent; multō diligentior, much more diligent: with the superlative multō, longē, much, by far, quam, as possible: multō or longē diligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam diligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

ADJECTIVES WITHOUT COMPARISON

160. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, are rarely, if ever, compared, especially such as denote Material, Color, Possession, or the relations of Time and Place:

aureus, golden ferreus, of iron albus, white flāvus, yellow māternus, of a mother paternus, of a father Rōmānus, Roman aestīvus, of summer sempiternus, eternal

¹ Observe that this adverbial comparison by means of magis and māximē corresponds exactly to the English adverbial comparison by means of more and most.

NUMERALS

- 161. Numerals comprise Numeral Adjectives and Numeral Adverbs.
 - 162. Numeral Adjectives comprise three principal classes:
 - 1. Cardinal Numbers: unus, one; duo, two; tres, three.
- 2. Ordinal Numbers: primus, first; secundus, second; tertius, third.
- 3. Distributives: singuli, one by one; bini, two by two, two each, two apiece.

Note. - To these may be added

- 1. Multiplicatives, adjectives in plex, Gen. plicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, threefold; quadruplex, fourfold.
- 2. Proportionals, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

163. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

	Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
1.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>jirst</i>	singulī,1 one by one
2.	duo, duae, duo	secundus,2 second	bīnī, two by two
3.	trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī <i>or</i> trīnī
4.	quattuor	quārtus, <i>fourth</i>	quaternī
5.	quīnque	quīntus, fifth	quīnī
6.	sex	sextus	s ēnī
7.	septem	septimus	septēnī
8.	octō	octāvus	octōnī
9.	novem	nõnus	novēnī
10.	decem	decimus	dēnī
11.	ūndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13.	tredecim ⁸ ·	tertius decimus 4	ternī dēnī
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15.	quindecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī
16.	sēdecim ⁸	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī

¹ Distributives, singuli, bini, etc., are adjectives, used only in the plural. They are declined like the plural of bonus: singuli, singulae, singulae.

² Alter is often used for secundus.

⁸ Sometimes with the parts separated: decem et tres, etc.

⁴ Decimus, with or without et, may precede: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius.

18.	duodēvīgintī 1	duodēvīcēsimus 2	duodēvīcēnī 8
19.	ūndēvīgintī 1	ūndēvīcēsimus 2	ündēvīcēnī 8
20.	vīgintī	vīcēsimus	vīcēnī
01 (vīgintī ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēnī singulī
21. }	ūnus et vigintī 4	ūnus et vīcēsimus 4	singuli et vicēnī ⁵
an (vīgintī duo	vīcēsimus secundus	vicēni bini
22. {	duo et vīgintī	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vicēnī
28.	duodētrīgintā	duodētrīcēsimus	duodētrīcēnī
29.	undetriginta	ūndētrīcēsimus	ūndētrīcēnī
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsimus	tricēnī
40.	quadraginta	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50.	quinquaginta	quīnquāgēsimus	quinquageni
60.	sexagintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī
70.	septuaginta	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80.	octoginta	octōgēsimus	octōgēnī
90.	nonaginta	nonāgēsimus	nônagênî
100.	centum	centēsimu s	centēnī
101	centum ūnus	centēsimus prīmus	centēni singulī
101.	centum et ūnus 6	centēsimus et prīmus	centeni et singuli
200.	ducentī, ae, a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī
300.	trecentî	trecentēsimus	trecēnī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī
500.	quingenti	quīngentēsimus	quīngēnī
600.	sēscentī	sēscentēsimus	sēscēnī
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī
900.	nōngentī	nõngentēsimus	nōngēnī
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīlia ⁷
2,000.		bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīlia
100,000.		centiēs mīllēsimus	centēna mīlia
1,000,000.	deciēs centēna mīlia ⁸	deciēs centiēs mīllēsimus	decies centena milia

¹ Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octō; decem et novem or decem novem: so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from trigints, etc., or by addition to viginti, etc.

² Sometimes expressed by addition: octāvus decimus; nonus decimus.

⁸ Sometimes octoni deni: noveni deni.

⁴ If tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

⁵ Sometimes vicēni et singuli or singuli vicēni.

⁶ In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds etc., as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: mille centum viginti or mille et centum viginti, 1120.

 $^{^{7}}$ Often written millia. For duo milia, bina milia or bis mille is sometimes used.

⁸ Literally, ten times a hundred thousand; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with centēna mīlia: centiēs centēna mīlia, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations centēna mīlia is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes centum mīlia is used.

- 1. Poets use numeral adverbs (171) very freely in compounding numbers: bis sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuordecim.
- 2. Sescenti and mille, and in poetry centum, are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as thousand is used in English.

164. Distributives are used

- 1. To show the Number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal each or apiece: ternos dēnārios accēpērunt, they received each three denarii, or three apiece. Hence
- 2. To express Multiplication: deciës centena mīlia, ten times a hundred thousand. a million.
- 3. Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bīna castra, two camps. Here for singulī and ternī, ūnī and trīnī are used: ūnae litterae, one letter; trīnae litterae, three letters.
- 4. Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: bīnī scyphī, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bīna hastīlia, two spears.
- 165. In fractions the numerator is expressed by cardinals and the denominator by ordinals, with or without pars, as in English: duae tertiae, two thirds = $\frac{2}{3}$; tres quintae, three fifths = $\frac{3}{3}$; tres septimae, three sevenths = $\frac{3}{3}$.
- 1. When the numerator is omitted, it is always one. Then pars is generally expressed: tertia pars, one third part = $\frac{1}{3}$; quarta pars, one fourth part = $\frac{1}{3}$.
- 2. When the denominator is omitted, it is always larger than the numerator by one. Here partes is expressed: duae partes, two thirds = $\frac{2}{3}$; tres partes, three fourths = $\frac{3}{4}$.

Declension of Numeral Adjectives

166. Ūnus, duo, and tres are declined as follows:1

			Ūnus	s, one.		
		SINGULAR		•	PLURAL	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	ūn us	ūn a	ūn um	ūn ī	ūn ae	ũn a
Gen.	ūn īus	ūn īus	ūn īus	ũn õrum	ūn ārum	ūn õrum
Dat.	ūn ī	ūn ī	ūn ī	ūn īs	ūn រីន	ūn īs
Acc.	ũn um	ũn am	ūn um	ūn ōs	ūn ās	ũn a
Abl.	ū n ō	ūn ā	ūn ō	ūn īs	ūn īs	ūn īs

¹ The Vocative of these numerals seems not to be in use, though the Roman grammarians make mention of une, uni, and tres as vocatives.

	Duo, two.			Tres, three.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.	
Nom.	du o	duae	du o 1	trēs	tr ia	
Gen.	du õrum	du ārum	du õrum ²	trium	tr ium	
Dat.	du ōbus	du ābus	du õbus	tribus	tribus	
Acc.	du ōs, du o	du ās	du o	trēs, trīs	tria	
Abl.	du õbus	du ābus	du õbus	tribus	tribus	

- 1. The plural of **unus** in the sense of alone may be used with any noun: **uni Ubii**, the **Ubii** alone; but in the sense of one, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: **una** castra, one camp; **unae** litterae, one letter.
 - 2. Like duo is declined ambo, both.
- 3. Multī, many, and plūrimī, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of many a: multa hostia, many a victim.
- 167. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable, but hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.
- 168. Mille as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of cubile (103): milia, milium, milium.
- 1. With the substantive mille, milia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: tria milia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.
- 169. Ordinals are declined like bonus, and distributives like the plural of bonus, but the latter often have um instead of 5rum in the Genitive: bīnum for bīnōrum.

170.		Numera	L Symbols		
Arabic	Roman	Arabic	Roman	Arabic	Roman
1	I	6	VI	11	XI
2	п	7	VII	12	XII
3	III	8	VIII	13	XIII
4	IV	9	IX	14	XIV
5	v	10	X	15	xv

¹ In the ending o in duo and ambo, we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit dva, the Greek $\delta \dot{v}_0$, the Latin duo, and the English two.

² Instead of duōrum and duārum, duum is sometimes used.

16	XVI	60	$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{X}$	600	DC
17	XVII	70	LXX	700	DCC
18	XVIII	80	LXXX	800	DCCC
19	XIX	90	XC	900	DCCCC
20	$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}$	100	C	1,000	CIO or M
21	XXI	200	CC	2,000	MM or II
30	XXX	300	CCC	10,000	CCIOO or \bar{X}
40	\mathbf{x} L	400	CCCC	100,000	CCCIDDD or $\bar{\overline{\mathbf{C}}}$
50	${f L}$	500	IO or D	1,000,000	CCCCIODOD or X

- 1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of : I=1; V=5; X=10; L=50; C=100. IO or D=500; CIO or M=1,000.
- 2. Each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500; IOO = $500 \times 10 = 5,000$; IOO = $5,000 \times 10 = 50,000$.
- 3. C placed before I as many times as D stands after it doubles its value: ID = 500; $CID = 500 \times 2 = 1,000$; $CCIDD = 5,000 \times 2 = 10,000$.
- 4. A line over a symbol increases the value a thousand fold, and a line over and on each side of it increases the value a hundred thousand fold: $\overline{X} = 10,000$; $\overline{X} = 100,000 \times 10 = 1,000,000$.

Numeral Adverbs

171. To numerals belong also Numeral Adverbs.

1	nomal amas	17	nantiča dociča	101.	contiās semal
1.	semel, once	17.	septiēs deci ē s	101.	centiēs semel
2.	bis, twice	18.	duodēvīciēs	102.	centiēs bis
3.	ter, three times	10.	octies decies	200.	ducentiēs
4.	quater	19.	ūndēvīciēs	300.	trecenties
5.	quīnquiēs 1	15.	noniēs deciēs	400.	quadringentiēs
6.	sexiēs	20.	vīciēs	500.	quīngentiēs
7.	septiēs	21.	semel et vīciēs	600.	sēscentiēs
8.	octiēs	22.	bis et vīciēs	700.	septingentiēs
9.	noviēs	3 0.	trīciēs	800.	octingentiës
10.	deciēs	40.	quadrāgiēs	900.	nōningentiēs
11.	ūndeciës	50.	quīnquāgiēs	300.	nōngentiēs
12.	duodeciēs	60.	sexāgiēs	1,000.	mīliēs
13.	ter deciēs	70.	septuāgiēs	2,000.	bis mīliēs
14.	quater deciës	80.	octōgiēs	10,000.	deciēs mīliēs
15.	quīnquiēs deciēs?	90.	nonāgiēs	100,000.	centiēs mīliēs
16.	sexiēs deciēs 2	100.	centies	1,000,000.	deciēs centiēs mīliēs

1. In compounds of units and tens above twenty, the unit, with et, ac, or atque, regularly precedes: bis et vīciēs; the tens, however, with or without the connective, may precede, as vīciēs et bis, or vīciēs bis.

¹ In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, ies is the approved ending, though iens eften occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives, iens is the approved ending: totiens, from tot, so often; quotiens, from quot, how often.

1 Or quindecies and sedecies.

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- 2. Numeral adverbs are often combined with Distributives: bis bina, twice two; virgines ter novenae, three choirs of nine maidens each.
- 3. For the poetic use of these adverbs with Cardinals, as bis sex for duodecim, see 163, 1.
- 4. Another class of adverbs, with the ending um or ō, is formed chiefly from Ordinals: prīmum, prīmō, for the first time, in the first place; tertium, in the third place; postrēmum, postrēmō, in the last place; but prīmō often means at first, in the beginning, in distinction from prīmum, in the first place, and postrēmō often means at last, in the end, in distinction from postrēmum, in the last place, lastly.

PRONOUNS

- 172. In construction, Pronouns 1 are used either as Substantives: ego, I; $t\bar{u}$, thou; is, he; or as Adjectives: meus, my; tuus, your; suus, his, her, their.
 - 173. Pronouns are divided into seven classes:
 - 1. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns: tū, thou; suī, of himself.
 - 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
 - 3. Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, this; ille, that.
 - 4. Determinative Pronouns: is, he, that.
 - 5. Restitive Pronouns: qui, who.
 - 6. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
 - 7. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

I. PERSONAL AND REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

174. Personal Pronouns,² so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, sometimes refer back to the subject of the sentence, and thus have a reflexive use: puer sē amat, the boy loves himself; sē amant, they love themselves; tē amās, you love yourself.

¹ But in their signification and use, pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out the relation of some object or action to the speaker, or to some other person or thing.

² Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

sui, of themselves

sē. themselves

sibl, for themselves

175. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns are thus declined:

Ego, <i>I</i>	Tū, thou	Sul, of himself, of herself
•	SINGULAR	
Nom. ego, I^1	tū, thou 2	_
Gen. mei, of me	tui, of you	sui, of himself, etc.
Dat. mihl, for me	tibl, for you	sibl, for himself
Acc. mē, me	tē, thee, you	sē, himself
Abl. mē, with, by me, etc.	tē, with, by you, etc.	sē, with, by himself, etc.8
	PLURAL	
Nom. nōs, we	vōs, you	
Gen on nostrum, of us	vestrum,4 of you	sui. of themselves

vos. vou vobis, with, by you Abl. nobis, with, by us sē, with, by themselves

\ vestri, of you

võbis, for you

nostri, of us

nobis, for us

nōs, us

Dat.

Acc.

- 1. MI is often used for mihi in poetry, and sometimes in prose. 2. Nostrum and vestrum are generally used in a Partitive sense, as quis nostrum, who of us? but nostri and vestri are generally used in an Objective sense, as memor vestri, mindful of you.
- 3. Observe that the case endings of pronouns differ considerably from those of nouns.
- 4. Emphatic Forms. Tute and tutemet for the Nom. t. All the other cases of personal pronouns, except the Genitive plural, have emphatic forms in met: egomet, I myself; temet, you yourself.
- 5. The Reduplicated Forms mēmē, tētē, and sēsē occur both in the Accusative and in the Ablative.
- 6. Ancient and Rare Forms are mis for mei; tis for tui; med, ted, sēd for mē, tē, sē, both Accusative and Ablative. Forms in pte as mēpte and septe are especially rare. In early Latin poetry, nostrorum and

¹ Ego has no connection in form with mei, mihi, etc., but it is identical, both in form and meaning, with the corresponding Greek pronoun.

² Tū and vōs, as Vocatives, though recognized by certain Roman grammarians, are of doubtful authority. All other pronouns, except the possessives, meus and noster, lack the Vocative.

The Ablative generally takes a preposition, as cum, with, a, ab, by.

⁴ Vestrum and vestri are also written vostrum and vostri, though less correctly. Mei, tui, sui, nostri, and vestri are in form strictly Possessives in the Genitive singular, but by use they have become Personal. Nostri and vestri have also become plural. Thus, memor vestri, mindful of you, means literally mindful of yours, i.e. of your welfare, interest. Nostrum and vestrum, for nostrorum and vestrorum, are also Possessives; see 176.

nostrārum sometimes occur for nostrum; and vostrum, vostrōrum, and vostrārum, for vestrum.

7. Cum, when used with the ablative of a personal pronoun, is appended to it: mēcum, with me; tēcum, with you.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

176. From Personal Pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus, mea, meum, my; noster, nostra, nostrum, our; tuus, tua, tuum, thy, your; vester, vestra, vestrum, your; suus, sua, suum, his, her, its; suus, sua, suum, their.

- 1. Possessives are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions; but meus has in the Vocative singular masculine generally mī, sometimes meus, and in the Genitive plural sometimes meum instead of meōrum.
- 2. Emphatic forms in pte occur in the Ablative singular: suopte, suapte; forms in met are rare: suamet.
- 3. The possessive cūius, cūius, cūium, early form quōius, quōia, quōium, whose? whose; generally interrogative, is rare, but it occurs in the Nominative singular and in a few other isolated forms.
- 4. A few forms of the possessives, cūiās, of whose country? and nostrās, of our country, declined like aetās, aetātis, occasionally occur.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

177. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they point out the objects to which they refer, are the following:

Hīc, this, near me. Iste, that, near you. Ille, that, near him, that yonder.

178. The Demonstrative Pronouns hic and iste are declined as follows, and ille is declined precisely like iste:

	Hīc, this. SINGULAR			Iste,		
				,		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	\mathbf{hic}	haec	hōc	iste	ista.	istud
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius	istīus	istīus	istīus

¹ Cuius, whose? is formed from the Gen. cuius of quis, who? but cuius, whose, not interrogative, is formed from cuius of qui, who.

Dat.	huic	huic	huic	istī	istī	istī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	istum	istam	istud
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	istō	istā	istō ¹
			PLURAL	•		
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
Dat.	his	hīs	hīs	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	istōs	istās	ista
Abl.	hīs	hīs	hīs	istīs	istīs	istīs

- Haec, for hae, feminine plural, is freely used in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in classical prose.
- 2. The stems of hīc, haec, hōc are ho, hā, strengthened in certain forms by the addition of another pronominal stem, i, and of the demonstrative particle ce, generally reduced to c.
- 3. The demonstrative enclitic ce may be appended to any form in s: hūius-ce, hōs-ce, hās-ce, hīs-ce.
- 4. If the interrogative ne is appended to a form originally ending in ce, the result is generally cine, sometimes cne: hīci-ne, hīc-ne.
- 5. The stems of iste, ista, istud are isto, istā, and those of ille, illa, illud are illo, illā.
- 6. In early Latin ce, generally shortened to c, is sometimes appended to certain cases of ille and iste. The following forms are the most important, though others occur.

_			SINGUL	A R		•
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	istīc	istaec	istūc	illīc	illaec	illūc
Dat.	istIc	istic	istīc	illīc	illīc	illīc
Acc.	istunc	istanc	istūc	illunc	illanc	illūc
Abl.	istōc	istāc	istōc	illōc	illāc	illōc
			Plura	L		
Nom.	_	istaec	istaec	illīsce	illaec	illaec
Acc.	_		istaec	_	_	illaec
Abl.	istIsce	istīsce	istīsce	illīsce	illīsce	illīsce

7. Syncopated Forms, compounded of ecce or em, lo, see, and certain cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, he, occa-

¹ Several ancient and rare forms of these pronouns occur. Thus:

Of hīc: hec for hīc; hōius for hūius; hui, hoic, for huic; hei, heis, for hī; hōrunc, hārunc, for hōrum, hārum.

Of iste: forms in \bar{i} , ae, for \bar{i} us in the Genitive and forms in \bar{o} , ae, for \bar{i} in the Dative.

Of ille: forms in \bar{i} , ae, for \bar{i} us in the Genitive and in \bar{o} , ae, for \bar{i} in the Dative. For ille, illa, a few forms of ollus, olla, are found.

sionally occur in comic poetry: eccillum for ecce illum, lo, see him; ellum for em illum, behold him; ellam for em illam, behold her; eccum for ecce eum, behold him; eccos for ecce eos, behold them.

- 8. Kindred to demonstrative pronouns are the following adjectives: tālis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many. Tot is indeclinable, the rest regular.
- 9. For talls, the Genitive of a demonstrative with modi, the Genitive of modus, measure, kind, is often used: hūius modi or hūius-modi, of this kind, such. In origin, hūiusmodi is simply a limiting Genitive, but it has become practically an indeclinable adjective.
- 179. Special Pronominal Endings. The declension of pronouns, in distinction from nouns, shows the following

Special Pronominal Endings

ius, in the Genitive singular: hūius, istīus, illīus.1

- I, in the Dative singular: istI, illI.
- d, in the neuter singular of the Nominative and Accusative: id, istud, illud.

IV. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

180. Determinative Pronouns specify the objects to which they refer. They are:

Is, ea, id; he, she, it, that one, that.

Ipse, ipsa, ipsum; he himself, she herself, itself, self.

Idem, eadem, idem; the same, same.

181. The Determinative Pronouns are declined as follows:

	Is, he.2 Singular			Ipse, self.8		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	is	ea.	id	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Gen.	ēius	ēius	ēius	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipslus
Dat.	eī	eī	eī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Acc.	eum	eam	id .	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Abl.	еō	eā	еō	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō

¹ In the ending ius, observe that i is a consonant when it follows a vowel, as in hūius, but a vowel when it follows a consonant, as in is-ti-us.

² The stem of is, ea, id appears in three different forms, i, eo, eā.

⁸ The stem of ipse for ipsus is ipso, ipsā, but forms of ipse occur in which the first element, the demonstrative stem i, is declined, while pse is treated as

PLURAL.

Nom.	iI	eae	ea.	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
Dat.	iis	iis	i īs	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	eōs	eās	ea	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	iīs	iīs	iīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

Idem, formed by appending dem to the pronoun is, the same, same. Only the first part is declined. Isdem is shortened to idem and iddem to idem, and m is changed to n before d; see 55, 5.

SINGULAR				PLURAL		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	idem	eadem	idem	īdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen.	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ēiusdem,	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrun dem
Dat.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	isdem	isdem	īsdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	isdem	isdem	Isdem

1. Case Forms. — Certain less common case forms of is and idem are the following:

Of is: \overline{e} , \overline{e} , and eae for the Dative eI; \overline{e} I and I for the Nominative iI; \overline{e} Is, Is, and ibus for the Dative and Ablative iis.

Of idem: eldem and ildem for the Nominative plural idem, and elsdem and ilsdem for the Dative and Ablative Isdem.²

V. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

182. The Relative qui, who, so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:³

Ancient and rare forms of qui are quei for Nom. sing. qui; quis, quid, for qui, quae, quod; quoius for cuius; quoi for cui; ques, quei, for Nom. pl. qui; queis, quis, for quibus; and qui for quo, qui, quibus.

an indeclinable particle: eum-pse = ipsum; eam-pse = ipsam, etc.; sometimes combined with rē: rēāpse = rē eāpse = rē ipsā, in reality. Ipsus for ipse is not uncommon.

¹ Other ancient and rare forms occur.

² In early Latin, eisdem and isdem occur for idem in both numbers, and eidem and idem for idem.

⁸ The relative qui, the interrogative quis, qui, and the indefinite quis, qui, are all formed from the same three stems, qui, quo, quā, seen in qui-s, quo-d, quā. Qui is for quo-i.

SINGULAR			PLURAL			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	qui	quae	quae ·
Gen.	cūius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	q uōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem 1	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quib us	quibus

- 1. Quī 2 = quō, quā, and quibus, with whom, with which, wherewith, is a Locative of the relative quī.
- 2. Cum, when used with the Ablative of the relative is generally appended to it: quibus-cum.
- 3. Quicumque and quisquis, whoever, are called from their signification General Relatives. Quicumque is declined like qui, but its parts are sometimes separated by one or more words: qua re cumque for quacumque re. Quisquis is rare except in the forms quisquis, quicquid, quoquo.
- 4. Relative Adjectives are: quālis, quāle, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms, quālisquālis, quāliscumque, etc. Quot is indeclinable.

VI. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

183. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. They are the following, with their compounds:

Masc. Fem. Neut.

- 1. Quis, quid who? what? used as a substantive.
- 2. Quī, quae, quod which? what? what kind of? used as an adjective.
- 3. Uter, utra, utrum which (of two persons)? what or which (of two things)? used both as a substantive and as an adjective.

¹ An Accusative quom, also written cum, formed directly from the stem quo, became the conjunction quom, cum, when, lit. during which, i.e. during which time. Indeed, several other conjunctions, as quam, quamquam, are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns.

² Compare this with the interrogative qui, how? why? (184, 4).

³ Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking cumque, like qui-cumque, or by being doubled, like quis-quis: quālis-cumque, quālis-quālis, of whatever kind; ubi-cumque, ubi-ubi, wheresoever.

⁴ The form quidquid seems to be without good authority.

184. Quis, quid? used in the singular, is declined as follows:

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.		
Nom.	quis	quid	wh o	what
Gen.	cūius	cūius	of whom	of what
Dat.	cui	cui	for whom	for what
Acc.	quem	quid	whom	what
Abl.	ā quō	quō	by whom	with what

- 1. Qui, quae, quod? which? what kind of? used as an adjective, is declined like the relative qui, quae, quod.
- 2. Uter, utra, utrum? which or what of two persons or things? has already been given; see 93.
- 3. Quis is sometimes used as an adjective, and qui sometimes as a substantive, especially in dependent clauses.
- 4. Quī, a Locative, used chiefly as an adverb, meaning how? by what means? occurs in special expressions, as quī scīs? how do you know? quī fit? how does it happen? and in the interrogative quīn = quī-ne, why not?
- 5. Strengthened forms of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns quis and qui:

Quis-nam, — quid-nam who indeed? what indeed? as a substantive.

Qui-nam, quae-nam, quod-nam of what kind indeed? as an adjective.

6. Note the Interrogative Adjectives: qualis, e, of what kind? quantus, a, um, how great? quot, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number?

VII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

- 185. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and qui, with their compounds or derivatives.
- 186. Quis, any one, and qui, any one, any, are nearly the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and qui; but they are used chiefly after si, nisi, nē, and num, and in relative clauses, and they have quae or qua in the feminine singular and neuter plural: sī quae, sī qua.
- 187. From quis and qui are formed various other indefinite pronouns and pronounnal adjectives, to which ullus may be

¹ The ancient and rare forms of the interrogative quis and qui are nearly the same as those of the relative qui.

added. These may be divided according to their meaning as follows:

1. Some one, any one, some, any; something, anything:

Substa	antive	Adjective			
ali-quis¹ quis-piam	ali-quid quid-piam ²	ali-qui quis-piam	ali-qua quae-piam	ali-quod quod-piam ²	
quis-quam	quic-quam ⁸	ūllus	ūlla	üllum	

Note 1.—Aliquis and quispiam are occasionally used as adjectives, and aliqui occasionally as a substantive. Aliquis and aliqui have aliqua in the neuter plural.

Note 2. — $\overline{\mathbf{U}}$ llus is the adjective corresponding to quisquam, of which it supplies the plural and sometimes the oblique cases of the singular.

2. Any one you please, anything you please; any whatever:

Substantive				Adjective		
quī-vīs	quae-vīs	quid-vīs	quī-vīs	quae-vīs	quod-vis	
quī-libet	quae-libet	quid-libet	quī-libet	quae-libet	quod-libet	

3. A certain one, a certain thing, certain:

Substantive			Adjective		
quī-dam	quae-dam	q uid-dam	quī-dam	quae-dam	quod-dam

Note.—In quidam, as in idem, m is changed to n before d: quendam, quan-dam; quorun-dam, quarun-dam.

4. Every one, every thing, every, each:

Substantive			Adjective	
quis-que	quid-que	quis-que	quae-que	quod-que

188. The following words, with which we are already familiar, are called Pronominal Adjectives; see 93:

alius,	alter;	uter,	neuter;	ūllus,	nūll us.
another,	the other;	which?	neither;	any,	not any.

1. Nüllus, no one, not any, no, supplies certain cases of němô, no one, and with rēs, also of nihil, nothing:

¹ Aliquis is formed from quis by prefixing ali, seen in ali-us; quis-piam and quis-quam from quis by annexing piam and quam.

² Also written quippiam and quoppiam.

⁸ The form quidquam seems to be without good authority.

Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.
nēmō	nūllīus	nēminī	nē m ine m	nūllō
nihil	nūllīus reī	nüllî rei	nihil	nūllā rē

189. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES

Interrogative	Indefinite	Demonstrative	Relative
quis, quī, who? what?1	quis, qui,2 any one, any; aliquis,2 some one, some; quidam, certain one, certain;	hīc, this one, this; s iste, that one, that; ille, that one, that; is, he, that;	${f qui},^2 who.$
uter, which of	uter or alteruter, either of two;	uterque, each, both;4	quī, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet,2 of any kind;	tālis, such;	quālis,² as.
quantus, how	aliquantus, some- what great; quan- tusvīs, as great as you please;	tantus, so great;	quantus,2 as, as great.
quot, how	aliquot, some;	tot, so many;	quot, as, as many

1. Nesció quis, I know not who, has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = quidam, some one. So also nesció qui, I know not which or what = some; nesció quot = aliquot, some, a certain number.

¹ Observe that the question quis or qui, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, qui, aliquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hic, this one, or hic qui, this one who; is, he, or is qui, he who, etc.

² In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, ali-quis, qui, qui-dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

^{*} On hic, iste, illo, and is, see 178, 181.

⁴ Or one of the demonstratives, hic, iste, etc.

⁵ Aliquot, quot, and tot are indeclinable.

VERBS

- 190. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.
- 1. Transitive Verbs admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat. he beats the slave.
- Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.
- 3. Some verbs may be used either with or without an object, i.e. either transitively or intransitively.
 - 4. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES

191. The Active Voice represents the subject as acting or existing:

Pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.

192. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing:

Filius a patre amatur, the son is loved by his father.

- 1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 302, 6.
- Deponent Verbs¹ are passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, I speak. But see 222.

II. MOODS

193. The Indicative Mood represents the action of the verb as a Fact. It may assert or assume a fact, or it may inquire after the fact:

Legit, he is reading. SI legit, if he is reading. Legitne, is he reading?

194. The Subjunctive Mood in general represents the action of the verb simply as Possible, as Desired, or as Conceived:

Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Forsitan quaerātis, perkaps you may inquire. 2

 $^{^1}$ So called from dopono, I lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning.

² But the use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax.

VERBS 77

195. The Imperative Mood is used in Commands and Entreaties:

Valētūdinem tuam curā, take care of your health.

III. TENSES

- 196. There are six tenses, three for Incomplete Action and three for Completed Action:
 - 1. Tenses for Incomplete Action:

Present:

amo, I love, I am loving, I do love.

Imperfect:

amābam, I was loving, I loved.

Future:

amābō, I shall love.

2. Tenses for Completed Action:

Perfect:

amāvī, I have loved, I loved.

Pluperfect: Future Perfect: amāveram, I had loved. amāverō, I shall have loved.

Note 1. - The Indicative Mood has the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.

- 197. The Latin Perfect, unlike the English, has a twofold use:
- 1. It sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have they have loved. It is then called the Present Perfect, or Perfect Definite.
- 2. It sometimes corresponds to our Imperfect, or Past tense they loved. It is then called the Historical Perfect, or Perfect Indefinite.
 - 198. Principal and Historical. Tenses are also distinguished as
 - 1. Principal or Primary Tenses:

Present:

amo. I love.

Present Perfect:

amāvī, I have loved.1

Future:

amābō, I shall love.

Future Perfect:

amāverō, I shall have loved.

2. Historical or Secondary Tenses:

Imperfect:

amābam, I was loving.

Historical Perfect: amāvī, I loved.1

Pluperfect:

amāveram, I had loved.

¹ Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses - the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen

- 199. Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural, and three persons, First, Second, and Third.
- 1. The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the Finite Verb.
- 200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:
 - 1. The Infinitive is a verbal noun:1

Exire ex urbe volo, I wish to go out of the city.

2. The Gerund gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the Second Declension, used only in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative singular. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in ing:

Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Ad discendum propensus, inclined to learning.

3. The Supine gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the Fourth Declension. It has a form in um and a form in ü:

Auxilium postulătum vēnit, he came to ask aid. Difficile dictü est, it is difficult to tell.

4. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective.² A verb may have four participles, — two in the Active, the Present and the Future, and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive³:

Active, Present and Future:

amāns, loving; amātūrus, about to

love.

Passive, Perfect and Gerundive:

amātus, loved; amandus, deserving to be loved.

in the Greek Aorist: $\operatorname{amāvi} = \pi \epsilon \phi(\lambda \eta \kappa a, I \text{ have loved}; \operatorname{amāvi} = \ell \phi(\lambda \eta \sigma a, I \text{ loved}.$ The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact—I loved; while the latter regards it as in progress—I was loving.

¹ The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin, it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. In the example observe that the Infinitive exire is translated by the English Infinitive, to go out.

² Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns. Participles are sometimes best translated by English Participles and sometimes by Clauses.

⁸ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle.

.VERBS 79

CONJUGATION

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	Characteristics	Infinitive Endings
Conj. I.	ā	ā-re
II.	ē	ē-re
III.	. 6	e-re
IV.	Ī	ī-re

- 202. Principal Parts. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine, or the Neuter of the Perfect Participle,² are called from their importance the Principal Parts of the verb.
- 1. In verbs which lack both the Supine and the Perfect Participle, the Future Participle may serve as one of the Principal Parts.
- 203. The Principal Parts are the stem forms of the verb, as they contain the three stems which form the basis of all verbal inflections, viz.:
- 1. The verb stem, which remains unchanged in all the various forms of both voices of the verb.
- 2. Two special stems,³ the Present Stem, often identical with the verb stem, found in the Present Indicative, and the Perfect Stem, found in the Perfect Indicative.
- 204. The entire conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the principal parts by means of the proper endings.
- 1. **Sum**, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation must be given at the outset.

¹ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection.

² The masculine form of the participle, sometimes treated as one of the Principal Parts, is unfortunately found only in transitive verbs, while the form here adopted covers nearly two hundred and fifty Supines and all Perfect Participles whether used personally or impersonally.

⁸ For the treatment of stems, see 246-253.

⁴ In the paradigms of regular verbs the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (233) each ending contains the characteristic yowel.

205. Sum, I am; Stems, es, fu.1

	PRINCIPAL	PARTS	
Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Fut. Part.
sum²	es se ²	fu ī	fut ürus
	Indicativ	в Моор	
	Present	Tense	
	SINGULAR	P	LURAL
sum	I am	sumus ⁸	we are
es	thou art, you are	es tis	you are
est	he is	sunt	they are
	Imper	FECT	
eram	I was	er āmus	we were
erās	thou wast, you were	er ātis	you were
erat	he was	er ant	they were
	Furu	RE	
e rō	I shall be	er imus	we shall be
er is	thou wilt be 4	er itis	you will be
erit	he will be	er unt	they will be
	Perf	ECT	
fu ī	I have been 5	fu imus	we have been
fuistī	thou hast been 4	fu istis	you have been
fuit	he has been	fu ërunt fu ëre	they have been
	ı	Iuele .	,
	PLUPER	FECT	
fueram	I had been	fu erāmus	we had been
fu erās	thou hadst been 4	fu erātis	you had been
fu erat	he had been	fu erant	they had been
	Future F	ERFECT	
fu erō	I shall have been	fu erimus	we shall have been
fu eris	thou wilt have been 4	fu eritis	you will have been
fu erit	he will have been	fu erint	they will have been
1 (7)			Grand marks (Thursday

 $^{^1}$ The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, am, was, been; go, went, gone.

Observe that the stem es has two forms, es, seen in es-se, es-tis, and in er-am, for es-am (50), and a weak form, s, seen in s-um, s-umus, s-ums.

⁸ Observe that the endings which are added to the stems es and fu are distinguished by the type.

⁴ Or, you will be, you have been, you had been, you will have been. The use of thou is confined chiefly to solemn discourse.

⁵ Or, I was; see 198, 2.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

		/	
	SINGULAR		PLURAL
sim	may I be, let me be	sīmus	let us be
s īs	mayst thou be 1	sīti s	be ye, may you be
sit	let him be, may he be	sint	let them be
	Імрев	RFECT	
es sem	I should be	es sēmus	we should be
es sēs	thou wouldst be	es sētis	you would be
es set	he would be	es sent	they would be
	Peri	FECT	
fu erim	I may have been	fu erimus	we may have been
fu eris	thou mayst have been	fu eritis	you may have been
fu erit	he may have been	fu erint	they may have been
	Plupe	RFECT	
fuissem	I should have been	fu issēmus	we should have been
fu issēs	thou wouldst have been	fu issētis	you would have been
fuisset	he would have been	fuissent	they would have been
	IMPER	ATIVE	
Pres. es	be thou	es te	be ye
Fut. estő	thou shalt be 2	es tōte	ye shall be
estō	he shall be	suntō	they shall be
	Infinitive	P	ARTICIPLE
Pres. esse	to be		
Perf. fuisse	to have been		
Fut. futür	um s esse to be about to be.	Fut. fu türus	about to be
	•		

- 1. In the paradigm all the forms beginning with e or s are from the stem es; all others from the stem fu.4
- 2. Rare Forms. Forem, fores, foret, forent, fore, for essem, esses, esset, essent, futürum esse; siem, sies, siet, sient, or fuam, fuäs, fuat, fuant, for sim, sis, sit, sint.

¹ Or be thou, or may you be, but remember that the proper translation of the Subjunctive can be best learned from the Syntax.

² Or like the Present, or with let: be thou; let him be.

³ Futūrus is declined like bonus, and the Accusative futūrum in futūrum esse like the Accusative of bonus: futūrum, am, um; futūrōs, ās, a.

⁴ Es and fu are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms they are in themselves roots.

HARK, LAT. GRAM. - 7

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

206. Stems and Principal Parts of Amo.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, ama1

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Pres. Ind. amō Pres. Inf. amāre Perf. Ind. amāvī Neut. Part. amātum²

207. Active Voice. — Amō, I love.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

	SINGULAR		PLURAL
am ō ¹	I love 8	am āmus	we love
am ās	thou lovest, you love	am ātis	you love
am at	he loves	amant	they love
	Impe	RFECT	
am ābam	I was loving	am ābāmus	we were loving
am ābās	you were loving 4	amābātis	you were loving
am ābat	he was loving	am ābant	they were loving
	Fu:	TURE	•
am āb ō	I shall love	am ābimus	we shall love
am ābis	you will love	amābitis	you will love
am ābit	he will love	amābunt	they will love
	Per	RFECT	
amāv ī	I have loved 5	amāv imus	we have loved
amāv istī	you have loved	amāv istis	you have loved
amāvit	he has loved	amäv ērunt , an	nāv ēre <i>they have loved</i>
	PLUP	ERFECT	
amāv eram	I had loved	amāv erāmus	we had loved
amāv erās	you had loved	amāverātis	you had lo ved
amāv erat	he had loved	amāv erant	they had loved
	Future	Perfect	
amāv erō	I shall have loved	amāv erimus	we shall have loved
amāv erīs	you will have loved	amāv eritis	you will have loved
amāv erit	he will have loved	amāv erint	they will have loved

¹ The final **5** of the stem disappears in amo, amem, etc., and in amor, amer, etc.

² Amātum, Supine or neuter Perfect Participle.

³ Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love.

⁴ Or thou wast loving; but see 205, footnote 4.

⁵ Or I loved; see 196, 2.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

SI	NGULAR		PLURAL
am em	may I love	am ēmus	let us love
am ēs	may you love	am ētis	may you love
amet	let him love	ament	let them love
	Імре	RFECT	
am ārem	I should love	am ārēmus	we should love
am ārēs	you would love	amārētis	you would love
amāret	he would love	am ārent	they would love
	Per	FECT	
amāv erim	I may have loved	amāv erimus	we may have loved
amāv erīs	you may have loved	amāv eritis	you may have loved
amāv erit	he may have loved	amāverint	they may have loved
	Plup	ERFECT	
amāv issem	I should have loved	amāv issēmus	we should have loved
amāv issēs	you would have loved	amāv issētis	you would have loved
amāv isse t	he would have loved	amāv issent	they would have loved
	Імрен	RATIVE	
Pres. amā	love thou	am āte	love ye
Fut. amātō	thou shalt love	amātōte .	ye shall love
amātō	he shall love	am antō	they shall love
In	FINITIVE	PA	RTICIPLE
Pres. amāre	to love	Pres. amāns 1	loving
Perf. amāvisse	to have loved		
Fut. amātūru	m² esse to be about to	Fut. amātūru	s ² about to love
	love		
G	BERUND		Supine .
Gen. amandī	of loving		
Dat. amandō	for loving		
Acc. amandu	m loving	Acc. amātum	to love
	m www.	Acc. amatum	io iove

For declension, see 128.
 Amātūrus is declined like bonus, and amātūrum like the Accusative of bonus.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

208. Passive Voice. — Amor, I am loved.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, ama

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am loved SINGULAR PLURAL amor amāmur amāris am**āminī** amätur amantur IMPERFECT I was loved amābāmur amābar amābāris, amābāre amābā**minī** amābātur amäbantur FUTURE I shall be loved amābor amābimur amāberis, amābere amābiminī amäbitur amābuntur PERFECT I have been loved or I mas loved amātus sum 1 amātī sumus amātus es amātī estis amātus est amāt**ī sunt** PLUPERFECT I had been loved amātus eram 1 amātī erāmus amātus erās amātī erātis amātus erat amātī erant FUTURE PERFECT I shall have been loved amātus erō 1 amātī erimus

amātī eritis

amātī erunt

amātus eris

amātus erit

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fui for amātus sum. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.

PRESENT

May I be loved, let him be loved

SINGULAR	_	PLURAL
amer	1	am ēmur
amēris, amēre		am ēminī
amētur	1	amentur

IMPERFECT

I should be loved, he would be loved

am ārer	am ārēmur
amārēris, amārēre	am ārēminī
amārētur	am ārent ur

PERFECT

I may have been loved, he may have been loved

-	
amātu s sim ¹	amāt ī sīmu s
amātus sīs	amāt ī sītis
amātu s sit	amātī sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been loved, he would have been loved

amāt us essem 1	amāt ī essēmus
amātu s essēs	amāt ī essētis
amāt us esset	amāt ī essent

IMPERATIVE

am**āminī**

be ye loved

	mātor mātor	*****	ilt be lor be loved		amar	itor	they shall be loved
	In	FINITIV	E		1	PAI	RTICIPLE
Pres. a	m ārī	1	o be lov	ed	}		
Perf. a	māt um	esse ¹	o have loved	been	Perf.	amātus	having been loved
Fut. a	ımāt um	īrī :	o be ab		Ger.2	am andus	to be loved, deserving to be loved

¹ Fuerim, fueris, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sīs, etc. So also fuissem fuisses, etc., for essem, essēs, etc.: rarely fuisse for esse.

be thou loved

Pres. amare

² Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, 4.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

209. Stems and Principal Parts of Moneo.

monuerit

VERB STEM, mon; PRESENT STEM, monë

	V 1112		•	
mor	neō	PRINCIPA mon ēre	mon ui	monitum
210	Active Voice	— Moneō, I	advise.	:
		Indicati		
		PRESENT		
	SINGULAR	1 aa	lvise PLUR	\L .
	mon eō		mon ēn	us
	monēs		mon ēti	la
	monet		monen	t
		Impe	RFECT	
		I was advising	y, or <i>I advised</i>	•
	mon ēbam		mon ēb	āmus
	mon ēbās		monēb	ātis
	mon ēbat	•	mon ēb	ant
		Fur	URE	
		$oldsymbol{I}$ shall	advise	
	mon ēbō		mon ēb	imus
	mon ēbis		monēb	itis
	mon ēbit		mon ēb	unt
		Per	FECT	
		I have advised	l, or I advised	
	monu ī		monu i r	nus
	monu isti		monu i s	stis :
	monu it	.	monuē	runt, monu ëre
		PLUPE	RFECT	
		I had o	<i>idvised</i>	
	monueran	1	monue	rāmus
	monu erās		monue	rātis
	monuerat		monue	rant
		FUTURE	Perfect	
		I shall ha	ve advised	
	monu erō		monue	rimus
	monu eris		_ monué	ritis

monuerint

PRESENT

May I advise, let him advise

SINGULAR	PLURAL
moneam	i moneāmus
moneās	moneātis
moneat	moneant

IMPERFECT

I should advise, he would advise

mon ērem	mo nērēmus
mon ērēs	mon ērētis
monēret	mon ērent

PERFECT

I may have advised, he may have advised

	-
monu erim	monu erimus
monu eris	. monu eritis
monuerit	monuerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have advised, he would have advised

monuissem	monu issēmus
monuissēs	monu issētis
monuisset	monu issent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. monē	advise thou	monēte	advise ye
Fut. monētō		monētōte	ye shall advise
monētō		monentō	they shall advise

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	mon ëre	to ad	vise	1	Pres.	mon ēns	advising
			ve advis				
Fut.	monit ürum esse	to be	about	to	Fut.	monit ūrus	about to advise
		adı	vise	- 1			

GERUND	SUPINE
Gen. monendi of advising Dat. monendo for advising	
Acc. monendum advising Abl monendo by advising	Acc. monitum to advise

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

211. Passive Voice. — Moneor, I am advised.

VERB STEM, mon: PRESENT STEM, monë

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

<i>T</i>	am	ndnieod	

SINGULAR PLURAL

moneor monēmur

monēris monēmuri

monētur monentur

IMPERFECT

I was advised

monēbar monēbāmur monēbāris, monēbāre monēbāminī monēbātur monēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be advised

monēbor monēbimur monēberis, monēbere monēbiminī monēbitur monēbuntur

PERFECT

I have been advised, I was advised

monitus sum ¹ monitI sumus
monitus es monitI estis
monitus est monitI sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been advised

monitus eram ¹ monitI erāmus
monitus erās monitI erātis
monitus erat monitI erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been advised

monitus erō¹ monitī erimus
monitus eris monitī eritis
monitus erit monitī erunt

¹ See 208, footnotes.

PRESENT

May I be advised, let him be advised

SINGULAR	PLURAL
monear	mon eāmur
mon eāris , mon eāre	mon eāminī
moneātur	mon eantur

IMPERFECT

I should be advised, he would be advised

monērer	mon ērēmur
monērēris, monērēre	mon ērēminī
mon ērētur	mon ērentur

PERFECT

I may have been advised, he may have been advised

monitus sim 1	monit ī sīmus
monit us sīs	monit ī sītis
monitus sit	monit ī sint

PLUPERFECT

. I should have been advised, he would have been advised

monitus essem 1	monit ī essēmus
monitus essēs	monit ī essētis
monitus esset	monit I essent

IMPERATIVE

		be thou advised	mon ēminī	be ye advised
Fut.	$\mathbf{mon} \mathbf{\bar{e}tor}$	thou shalt be advised		
	mon ēto r	he shall be advised	monentor	they shall be advised

	Infiniti	VE	PAR	TICIPLE
		to be advised to have been advised	Perf. monitus	having been advised
Ger.	monitum Irl	to be about to be advised	Ger. monendus	to be advised, deserv- ing to be advised

¹ See 208, footnotes.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

212. Stems and Principal Parts of Rego.

Verb Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege, rego1

PRINCIPAL PARTS regō regere rēxī2 rēctum 2 213. Active Voice. — Rego, I rule. INDICATIVE MOOD PRESENT TENSE I rule SINGULAR PLUBAL ' regimus regō regis regitis regit regunt IMPERFECT I was ruling, or I ruled reg**ēbam** reg**ēbāmus** regēbās reg**ēbātis** regēbat regēbant FUTURE I shall rule regam reg**ēmus** reg**ētis** regēs reget regent PERFECT I have ruled, or I ruled rēxī rēximus rēxistis rēxistī rēxit rexerunt, rexere PLUPERFECT I had ruled rēx**erāmus** rēxeram rēxerās rēxerātis rēxerant rēxerat FUTURE PERFECT I shall have ruled rēxerō rēxerimus rēxeris rēxeritis

rēxerint

rēx**erit**

¹ The characteristic of this conjugation is the thematic vowel which connects the stem and the ending. It originally had the form of Θ or O, but in classical Latin it generally appears as i or U, as in *reget, regit; *regont, regunt.

² Rēxī, from *rec-sī, from *reg-sī; see 51. Rēc-tum, from *reg-tum; see 55.1.

PRESENT

May I rule, let him rule

SINGULAR		PLURAL
regam	1	regāmus
regās	i	regātis
regat	1	regant

IMPERFECT

I should rule, he would rule

regerem	reg erēmu
regerēs	reg erētis
regeret	regerent

PERFECT

I may have ruled, he may have ruled

rēxerim	rēxerimus
rēxer is	rē xeritis
rëxerit	rēxerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have ruled, he would have ruled

rēxissem	rēx issēmus
rēxissēs	rēxias ētia
rēxisset	rēxissent

IMPERATIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. rege rule thou regite	
·	e ye shall rule 5 they shall rule

Infinitive

Pres.	reg ere	to ruie	Pres.	reg ens	r uung
		to have ruled to be about to rule	Fut.	rēct ūrus	about to rule

GERUND

Gı	RUND	1	Sur	PINE
Gen. regendī Dat. regendō Acc. regendum Abl. regendō	of ruling for ruling ruling by ruling	Acc. Abl.	rēctum rēctū	to rule to rule, be ruled

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

. 214. Passive Voice. — Regor, I am ruled.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege, rego

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am ruled

SINGULAR PLURAL
regor regimur
regeris regimini
regitur reguntur

IMPERFECT

I was ruled

regēbar regēbāris, regēbāre regēbātur reg**ēbāmu**r reg**ēbāminī** reg**ēbant**ur

FUTURE I shall be ruled

regar regēris, regēre regētur reg**ēmur** reg**ēminī** reg**entu**r

PERFECT

I have been ruled, or I was ruled

rēctus sum ¹ rēctus es rēctus est rēct**ī sumus** rēct**ī estis** rēct**ī sunt**

PLUPERFECT

I had been ruled

rēctus eram ¹ rēctus erās rēctus erat rēctī erāmus rēctī erātis rēctī erant

FUTURE PERFECT I shall have been ruled

rēctus erō 1 rēctus eris rēctus erit rēct**ī erimus** rēct**ī eritis** rēct**ī erunt**

¹ See 208, footnotes.

PRESENT

May I be ruled, let him be ruled

SINGULAR	PLURAL
regar	reg āmur
regāris, regāre	reg āminī
regātur	reg antur

IMPERFECT

I should be ruled, he would be ruled

regerer	reg erēmur
regerēris, regerēre	reg erēminī
regerētur	regerentur

PERFECT

I may have been ruled, he may have been ruled

rēct us sim 1	rēct ī sīmus
rēctus sīs	rēct ī sītis
rēctus sit	rēctī sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled

rēctus essem 1	rēct ī essēmus
rēc tus essēs	rēct ī essēti s
rēctus esset	rēct ī essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. regere	be thou ruled	reg iminī	be ye ruled
_	thou shalt be ruled he shall be ruled	reguntor	they shall be ruled

	INFIN	IIIVE	ĺ	IA	CITCIFLE
Pres. regī		to be ruled			
Perf. rēcti	ım esse ¹	to have been ruled	Perf.	rēct us	having been ruled 1
Fut. rēcts	ım iri	to be about to be	Ger.	regendus	to be ruled, deserving
		ruled			to be ruled

¹ Rēc-tus from *reg-tus; see 55, 1.

216.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

215. Stems and Principal Parts of Audio.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi

aud	liō	PRINCIP.	al parts aud īvī	audītum
16.	Active Voice	. — Andiō. <i>I</i>	hear.	
		•	ive Mood	
			TENSE	
			hear	
	SINGULAR	1.	••••	PLURAL
	aud iō		1	aud īmus
	aud īs			aud itis
	a ud it		1	audiunt
			RFECT	
		I was heari	ng, or I heard	
	aud iēban	1	1	aud iēbāmus
	aud iēbās			audiēbātis
	audi ēbat		1	aud iēbant
		Fu	TURE	
		Isha	ıll hear	
	audiam		1	aud iēmus
	aud iēs		1	aud iētis
	aud iet			aud ient
		Per	RFECT	
		I have hear	d, or I heard	
	audīv ī		ĺ	audīv imus
	audīv istī		1	audīv istis
	audīv it		İ	audivērunt, audivēre
		Рипр	ERFECT	
			l heard	
	audīverar		1	audīv erāmus
	audiverās	_	1	audiverātis
	audīverat			audiverant
		Trons.	Perfect	
			ave heard	
	audiver ō	1 SHULL H		audiverim us
	audīv ero audīv erīs		1	audiv eritis
	audiverit		1	audiverint
	wuui + Glit		ı	Water / Coases

PRESENT

May I hear, let him hear

	22 dg 2 10 di , tot 10 11 10 di	
SINGULAR		PLURAL
audiam	1	aud iāmu s
aud iās		aud iātis
audiat		aud iant

IMPERFECT

I should hear, he would hear

audirem	audīrēmus
audīrēs	aud īrētis
audiret	audirent

Perfect

I may have heard, he may have heard

audīverim	audīv erimus
audīv erīs	audīv eritis
audiv erit	audīv erint

PLUPERFECT

I should have heard, he would have heard

audivissem	audīv issēmus
audīv issēs	audīv issētis
audivisset	audīv issent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. audī	hear thou	aud īte	hear ye
Fut. audītō	thou shalt hear	aud ītōte	ye shall hear
aud ītō	he shall hear		they shall hear

INFINITIVE

	Infinitiv	ve i		PART	ICIPLE
	audīre	to hear		aud iēns	hearing
Perf.	audīv isse	to have heard			
Fut.	audit ürum esse	to be about to	Fut.	audīt ūrus	about to hear

0	esse	to	bе	about	to
			hec	m	

GERUND	Supine

Gen. aud iendī Dat. aud iendō	of hearing for hearing			
Acc. audiendum	hearing	Acc.	audit um	to hear
Abl. audiendō	by hearing	Abl.	audīt ū	to hear, be heard

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

217. Passive Voice. — Audior, I am heard.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TRASE

PRES	BENT TENSE
singular audior audīris audītur	am heard PLURAL audimur audimini audiuntur
Ix	PERFECT
Iı	vas heard
audi ēbar aud iēbāris, audiēbāre aud iēbātur	aud iēbāmur aud iēbāminī aud iēbantu r
]	Future
I sh	all be heard
audiar audiēris, audiēre audiētur	aud ismur aud isminī audientur
I	PERFECT
I have been h	neard or I was heard
audītus sum ¹ audītus es audītus est	audit i sumus audit i estis audit i sun t
PL	UPERFECT
I had	l been heard
audīt us eram ¹ audīt us erās audīt us erat	audīt ī erāmus audīt ī erātis audīt ī erant
Futu	RE PERFECT
I shall h	ave been heard
audīt us erō ¹ audīt us eris audīt us erit	audīt ī erimus audīt ī eritis audīt ī erunt

¹ See 208, footnotes.

PRESENT

May I be heard, let him be heard

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audiar	aud iāmur
audiāris, audiāre	aud iāminī
audiātur	aud iantur

IMPERFECT

I should be heard, he would be heard

audīrer	aud īrēmur
audīrēris, audīrēre	aud īrēminī
aud īrētu r	audirentur

PERFECT

I may have been heard, he may have been heard

audit us sim	audīt ī sīmus
auditus sīs	audīt ī sītis
audītus sit	audīt ī sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been heard, he would have been heard

udīt us essem	audīt ī essēmus
udīt us essēs	audīt ī essētis
udīt us esset	audīt ī essen t

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	aud īre	be thou heard	aud imini	be ye heard
Fut.	audītor	thou shalt be heard		
	aud itor	he shall be heard	aud iunto r	they shall be heard

Infinit	IVE	PARTICIPLE		
Pres. audīrī Perf. audīt um esse	to be heard to have been heard	Perf. auditus	having been heard	
Fut. auditum iri	to be about to be heard	Ger. audiendus	to be heard, deserv- ing to be heard	

HARK. LAT. GRAM. -8

L.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

218. Active Voice: Present System.1

INDICATIVE MOOD

		PRESENT TEN	3E	•	•
am -ō mon -eō reg -ō aud -iō	-ās -ēs -is -īs	-at -et -it -it	-āmus -ēmus -imus	-ātis -ētis -itis -īt <u>i</u> s	-ant -ent -unt -iunt !
am -ā)		Imperfect			
$egin{ammatrix} \mathbf{am} & -\mathbf{ar{a}} \\ \mathbf{mon} & -\mathbf{ar{e}} \\ \mathbf{reg} & -\mathbf{ar{e}} \\ \mathbf{aud}\text{-}\mathbf{i}\text{-}\mathbf{ar{e}} \end{pmatrix} ext{-bam}$	-bās	-bat	-bāmus	-bātis	-bant
aud-1-e)		Future		•	
am -ā } -bō	-bis	-bit	-bimus	-bitis	-bunt
reg aud -i } -am	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
		Subjunctiv	E		
		PRESENT			
am -em mon -ē)	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\mathbf{am}\\\mathbf{mon}\ \ -\bar{\mathbf{e}}\\\mathbf{reg}\\\mathbf{aud}\ \ -\mathbf{i}\end{array}\right\}-\mathbf{am}$	-ā.s	-at	-āmus	-ātis	-ant
am -ā)		Imperfect			
$\left.\begin{array}{cc}\mathbf{am} & -\bar{\mathbf{a}}\\\mathbf{mon} & -\bar{\mathbf{e}}\\\mathbf{reg} & -\mathbf{e}\\\mathbf{aud} & -\bar{\mathbf{i}}\end{array}\right\}\text{-rem}$	-rēs	-ret	-rēmus	-rētis .	-rent
		Imperativi	C		
PRESENT]	FUTURE		
SINGULAR PLURA		SINGULAR		LURAL	
am -ā am -ā mon -ē mon-ē reg -e reg -i aud -ī aud -ī	-te	$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{am} & -\bar{\mathbf{a}} \\ \mathbf{mon} - \bar{\mathbf{c}} \\ \mathbf{reg} & -\mathbf{i} \\ \mathbf{aud} & -\bar{\mathbf{i}} \end{bmatrix} - \mathbf{t\bar{0}} - \mathbf{t\bar{0}}$	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī	am -an mon-en reg -un aud -iun	}-tō
PRESENT INFIN	ITIVE	PRESENT PART	CIPLE	GERU	ND.
$egin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{am} & -\mathbf{ar{a}} \\ \mathbf{mon} & -\mathbf{ar{e}} \\ \mathbf{reg} & -\mathbf{e} \\ \mathbf{aud} & -\mathbf{ar{i}} \end{array} iggr\}$ -re		am -āns mon-ēns reg -ēns aud -iēns		am -an mon-en reg -en aud -ien	-dī ^

¹ For the Present System, see 233.

VERBS 99

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

219. Passive Voice: Present System.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

am mon reg aud	-e -i } -or	am -ā mon-ē reg -e aud -ī	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī	-tur	-mur	-minī	am -an mon-en reg -un aud -iun	-tu r
am	-ā)		Imp	ERFECT	r			
mon reg	-ā -ē -ē i-ē } -bar	-bāris ¹	ı	-bātur	-bāmur	-bāminī		-bantur
			Fo	TURE	V			
am mon	$\begin{bmatrix} -\bar{a} \\ -\bar{e} \end{bmatrix}$ -bor	-beris	v	-bitur	-bimur	-biminī		-buntur
reg aud	-ā } -bor -ē } -ar	-beris -ēris		-ētur	-ēmur	-ēminī		-entur
	-		Subju	UNCTI	VE			
			Pr	ESENT				
am	-er	-ēris		-ētur	-ēmur	-ēminī		-entur
mon reg aud	-e -i } -ar	-āris		-ātur	-āmur	-āminī		-antur
			Imp	ERFECT	r			
mon reg aud	-ā. -ē. -e. -ī.	-rēris ¹		-rētur	-rēmur	-rēminī		-rentur
			Імре	RATIV	Æ			
	Pres	ENT				Futue	RE	

Present Infinitive	GERUNDIVE
am -ā)	am -an)
$ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{mon}-\mathbf{\tilde{e}} \\ \mathbf{aud}-\mathbf{\tilde{i}} \end{bmatrix} $ -ri	mon-en -dus
aud -ī)	aud -ien [-uus
reg -ī	reg -en

 $^{^{1}}$ In the second person singular of the passive, except in the Present Indicative, the ending re is often used instead of ris: amābā-ris or amābā-re,

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

220. Active Voice: 1. Perfect System.1

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE amāv monu -istī -it -imus -istis -erunt, -ere rēx audīv PLUPERFECT amāv monu -eram -erāmus rēx audīv FUTURE PERFECT amāv monu -eris -erit -erimus -eritis -erint rēx audīv SUBJUNCTIVE PERFECT amāv monu -erim -eris -erit -erimus -eritis -erint rēx audīv PLUPERFECT amāv monu -issem -issēs -issēmus -issētis -issent rēx audīv Perfect Infinitive amāv monu rēx audīv

2. Participial System

Futu	RE INFINITIVE	FUTURE PARTICIPLE	Supine
amā moni rēc audī	-tūrum esse	-tūrus	-tum -tū

¹ For the Perfect System, see 234, and for the Participial System, 235.

VERBS 101

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

221. Passive Voice: Participial System.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE

			I BEFECT I BN	323		
amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus sum	-tus es	-tus est	-tī¹ sumus	-tī estis	-tī sunt
			PLUPERFECT	,		
amā mon-i rēċ audī	-tus eram	-tus erās	-tus erat	-tī erāmus	-tī erātis	-tī e ra nt
auui	,		FUTURE PERFI	ECT		
amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus erō	-tus eris	-tus erit	-tī erimus	-tī eritis	-tī erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus sim	-tus sīs	-tus sit	-tī sīmus	-tī sītis	-tī sint
-----------------------------	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------

PLUPERFECT

amā mon-i rēc	-tus essem	-tus essēs	-tus esset	-tī essēmus	-tī essētis	-tī essent
audī	j		4			

Infinitive

	PERFECT	. Pr	TURE
amā mon-i rēc audī	-tum esse	-tu	ım īrī

PERFECT PARTICIPLE

¹ In the plural, tus becomes tī: amā-tī sumus, etc.

² From the comparative view presented in 218-221, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System. See also 201, footnote.

Fut.

DEPONENT VERBS

- 222. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the passive voice, with the signification of the active. But
- 1. They have also in the active the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine.
- 2. The Gerundive has the passive signification; sometimes, also, the Perfect Participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
 - 3. The Future Infinitive has the active form.
- 223. Deponent verbs are found in each of the four conjugations. Their principal parts are the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, and Perfect Indicative:

I.	Hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum	to exhort				
II.	Vereor	verērī	veritus sum	to fear				
III.	Loquor	loqui	locūtus sum	to speak				
IV.	Blandior	blandīrī	blandītus sum ,	to flatter				
	I	II	ш	ıv				
Pres.	hortor, I exhort	vereor, I fear	loquor, I speak	blandior, I flatter				
	hortāris, etc.	verēris, etc.	loqueris, etc.	blandīris, etc.				
Imp.	hortābar	verēbar	loquēbar	blandiēbar				
Fut.	hortābor	verēbor	loquar	blandiar				
Perf.	hortātus sum	veritus sum	locūtus sum	blandītus sum				
Plup.	hortātus eram	veritus eram	locūtus eram	blandītus eram				
F. P.	hortātus erō	veritus erō	locūtus erō	blandītus erō				
		Subjunctiv	е Моор					
Pres.	horter	verear	loquar	blandiar				
Imp.	hortārer	verērer	loquerer	blandirer				
Perf.	hortātus sim	veritus sim	locūtus sim	blandītus sim				
Plup.	hortātus essem	veritus essem	locūtus essem	blandītus essem				
Imperative								
Pres.	hortāre	verēre	loquere	blandire				
Fut.	hortātor	verētor	loquitor	blanditor				
			-	:				
	Infinitive							
Pres.	hortārī	verērī	loquī	blandiri				
Perf.	hortātum esse	veritum esse	locūtum esse	blandītum esse				

hortātūrum esse veritūrum esse locūtūrum esse

blandītūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	hortāns hortātūrus	verēns veritūrus	loqu ēns locūtūrus	blandiēns blanditūrus
Perf.	hortātus	veritus	locūtus	blandītus
Ger.	hortandus	verendus	loquendus	blandiendus

GERUND

hortandi, etc. verendi, etc. loquendi, etc. blandiendi, etc.

SUPINE

hortātum	veritum	locütum	blandītum
hortātū	veritū	locūtū	blandītū

SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS

224. Semi-Deponent Verbs have active forms in the Present system and passive forms in the Perfect system:

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	to dare
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum	to rejoice
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	to be wont
fīdō	fidere	fīsus sum	to trust

1. The Perfect Participles of a few Intransitive verbs have the active meaning, but they are generally used as adjectives:

adultus, having grown up, adult, from adolescere, to grow up cautus, taking care, cautious, "cavere, to take care cenatus, having dined, "cenare, to dine placitus, pleasing, "placere, to please pransus, having breakfasted, "prandere, to breakfast

2. Dēvertor, to turn aside, and revertor, to return, have active forms in the Perfect system, borrowed from dēvertō and revertō.

I-VERBS OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

- 225. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in 15, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth whenever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are:
- 1. Capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; iaciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatiō, to shake; rapiō, to seize; sapiō, to be wise; with their compounds.

- 2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs lacio, to entice, and specio, to look; allicio, elicio, illicio, pellicio, etc.; aspicio, conspicio, etc.
- 3. The Deponent Verbs gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 222.

226. Stems and Principal Parts of Capiō.

VERB STEM, cap; PRESENT STEM, capi 2

PRINCIPAL PARTS

capiō capere cēpī captum

227. Active Voice. — Capiō, I take.

INDICATIVE MOOD

QT	NGULAR	Pr	ESENT TENSE	PLURAL	
capiō	capis	capit	capimus	capitis	capiunt
			Imperfect		
capiē-bam	-bās	-bat	capiē-bāmus	-bātis	-bant
			FUTURE		
capi-am	-ēs	-et	capi-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
			Perfect		
cēp-ī	-istī	-it	cēp-imus	-istis	-ērun t, or -ēre
		H	LUPERFECT		
cēpe-ram	-rās	-rat	cēpe-rāmus	-rātis	-rant
		Fun	TURE PERFECT		
cēpe-rō	-rĭs	-rit	cepe-rimus	-ritis	-rint
		St	JBJUNCTIVE		
•			PRESENT		
capi-am	-ās	-at	capi-āmus	-ātis	-ant
			Imperfect		
cape-rem	-rēs	-ret	cape-rēmus	-rētis	-rent
			Perfect		
cēpe-rim	-rĭs	-rit	cēpe-rimus	-ritis	-rint
		H	LUPERFECT		
cēpis-sem	-sēs	-set	cepis-sēmus	-sētis	-sent

¹ Specio occurs, but it is exceedingly rare.

² Remember that i becomes e when final, and also before r from s: *capi, cape; *capise, capere; see 26, 1 and 2.

IMPERATIVE

Problem Plural Pres. cape capite
Fut. capitō capitōte capitote capitōte

INFINITIVE PARTICIPLE
Pres. capere Pres. capiëns
Perf. cëpisse

Fut. captūrum esse Fut. captūrus

GERUND SUPINE

Gen. capiendī
Dat. capiendō
Acc. capiendun

Acc. capiendum Acc. captum
Abl. capiendō Abl. captū

228. Passive Voice. — Capior, I am taken.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

		FRESE	INT LENSE		
SIN	GULAR			PLURAL	
capior	caperis	capitur	capimur	capiminī	capiuntur
		Імн	PERFECT		
capiē-bar	-bāris	-bātur	capiē-bāmur	-bāminī	-bantur
		\mathbf{F}	UTURE		
capi-ar	-ēris	-ētur	capi-ēmu r	-ēminī	-entur
		Pı	ERFECT		
captus sum	es	est	captī sumus	estis	sunt
		PLU	PERFECT		
captus eram	erās	erat	captī erāmus	erātis	erant
		Futur	E PERFECT		
captus erō	eris	erit	captī erimus	eritis	erunt
Subjunctive					
			RESENT		
capi-ar	-āris	-ātur	capi-āmur	-āminī	-antur
Imperfect					
cana rer	-rēris	-rētur	cape-rēmur	-rēminī	-rentur
cape-rer	-10119	-1 Cour	cwbe-remut.	-10000	-IUIIUII

P	RFE	
	KFE	CI

captus sim sīs sit captī sīmus sītis sint $\frac{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{LUPERFECT}}}{\mathbf{captus \ essem}} \quad \mathbf{ess}$ esset captī essēmus essētis essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. capere capimini
Fut. capitor
capitor capiuntor

Infinitive Participle

Pres. capī

Perf. captum esse Perf. captus
Fut. captum iri Fut. capiendus

229. Deponent verbs in ior of the Third Conjugation, like other deponent verbs, have in the active voice the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine, but lack the Future Infinitive of the passive form. They are otherwise inflected precisely like the passive of captor:

patior pati passus sum to suffer

VERBAL INFLECTIONS

230. The principal parts are regularly formed in the four conjugations with the following endings:

Conj. I.		ō amō	āre amāre	āvī amāvī	ātum amātum	to love
II.	In a few verbs: In most verbs:	eō dēleō eō	ëre dëlëre ëre	ēvī dēlēvī uī	ētum dēlētum itum	to destroy
,	(III III OSO VELOS .				monitum	to advise
	(T.,	-			A	
III.	in consonant stems:	carpō	carpere	-	carptum	to pluck
III.	In consonant stems:	carpō uō acuō	carpere uere acuere	carpsī uī	carptum	to pluck to sharpen

Note. — For a full treatment of the formation of the principal parts of verbs, see Classification of Verbs, 257-289.

- 231. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines or Perfect Participles 1 generally change the stem vowel in forming the principal parts.²
- 1. When the simple verb has the stem vowel e, which becomes 5, both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally changes e to i, but retains 5:

regō regere rēxī rēctum to rule dI-rigō dI-rigere di-rēxī di-rēctum to direct

2. When the simple verb has the stem vowel e, which remains unchanged both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally retains e in the Participle, but changes it to i in the other parts:

teneō tenere tenui tentum to hold dē-tineō dē-tinere dē-tinui dē-tentum to detain

3. When the simple verb has the stem vowel a, which becomes 5 in the Perfect, the compound generally retains 5 in the Perfect, but changes a to e in the Participle and to i in the other parts:

capiò capere cēpī captum to take ac-cipiò ac-cipere ac-cēpī ac-ceptum to accept

4. When the simple verb has the stem vowel a throughout, the compounds generally change a to e in the Participle and to i in the other parts:

rapiō rapere rapuī raptum to seize dī-ripiō dī-ripere dī-ripuī dī-reptum to tear asunder

Note. — For Reduplication in compounds, see 251, 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

- 232. All the forms of the regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems.
- 233. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises:
 - 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative Active and Passive.
 - 2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive Active and Passive.
 - 3. The Imperative Active and Passive.
 - 4. The Present Infinitive Active and Passive.
 - 5. The Present Participle.
 - 6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

¹ The term Participle here used of one of the principal parts of the verb designates the form in tum or sum, which is the basis of the Participal or Supine System; see 235.

² This change took place at a very early date, in accordance with phonetic laws, under the influence of the initial accent of that period.

- Note. These parts are all formed from the Present stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending re: amare, present stem ama; monere, mone; regere, rege, with ablaut form rego; audire, audi.
- 234. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the active voice:
 - 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
 - 2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
 - 3. The Perfect Infinitive.
- Note. These parts are all formed from the Perfect stem, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping **ī**: amāvī, perfect stem **amāv**; monuī, monu.
- 235. The Participial System, with the neuter of the Perfect Participle or the Supine as its basis, comprises:
- 1. The Future Active and the Perfect Passive Participle, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, while the latter with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the passive those tenses which in the active belong to the Perfect system. These Participles are both formed from the verb stem, the Future by adding tūrus, which sometimes becomes sūrus, and the Perfect by adding tus, which sometimes becomes sus.
- 2. The Supine in tum and tū, the former of which with iri forms the Future Infinitive Passive. The Supine is formed from the verb stem by adding the endings tum, tū, which sometimes become sum, sū.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

236. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the verb sum, is used of actions which are imminent, or about to take place:

Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	amātūrus sum	I am about to love
Imp.	amātūrus eram	I was about to love
Fut.	amātūrus erō	I shall be about to love
Perf.	amātūrus fui	I have been, or was, about to love
Plup.	amātūrus fueram	I had been about to love
F. P.	amātūrus fuerō	I shall have been about to love

Pres.	amātūrus sim	May I be about to love
Imp.	amātūrus essem	I should be about to love
Perf.	amātūrus fuerim	I may have been about to love
Plup.	amātūrus fuissem	I should have been about to lov

Infinitive

Pres.	amātūrum esse	to be about to love
Perf.	amātūrum fuisse	to have been about to love

237. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with sum, is used of actions which are necessary, or which ought to take place:

Amandus sum, I am to be loved, deserve to be, or ought to be loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	amandus sum	I am to be loved, I must be loved
Imp.	amandus eram	I was to be loved, deserved to be, etc.
Fut.	amandus erō ·	I shall deserve to be loved
Perf.	amandus fuī	I have deserved to be loved
Plup.	amandus fueram	I had deserved to be loved
F. P.	amandus fuerō	I shall have deserved to be loved

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	amandus sim	May I deserve to be loved
Imp.	amandus essem	I should deserve to be loved
Perf.	amandus fuerim	I may have deserved to be loved
Plup.	amandus fuissem	I should have deserved to be loved

Infinitive

Pres.	amandum esse	to deserve to be loved
Perf.	amandum fuisse	to have deserved to be loved

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION

238. Perfects in āvī and ēvī and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop ve or vi before r or s¹:

amāvistī	amāstī	dēlēvistī	dēlēstī
amāvisse	amāsse	dēlēvisse	dēlēsse
amāverim	amārim	dēlēverim	dēlērim
amāverō	amārō	dēlēverō	dēlērō

¹ According to another theory they drop ∇ , and then the following vowel, e or i; disappears by contraction with the preceding vowel, \bar{e} or \bar{e} .

1. Perfects in $\bar{o}v\bar{i}$ from $n\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, and from the compounds of **moveo**, together with the tenses derived from them, may also drop **ve**, or **vi**, before r or s^1 :

nōvistī nōstī nōverīs nōrīs commovissem commōssem

2. Perfects in **īvī** and the tenses derived from them sometimes drop **vi** before **s**, and they may drop **v** in any situation except before the ending **ēre**:

audivisti audisti audivī audii audivisse audisse audivērunt audiērunt

3. Certain short forms from Perfects in sI and xI, common in poetry, are probably an independent formation of an early date:

 ${
m scripsti} = {
m scripsisti}$ ${
m dixti} = {
m dixisti}$ ${
m scripstis} = {
m scripsistis}$ ${
m dixem} = {
m dixissem}$

- 239. The ending ere for erunt in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Caesar and Cicero. In poetry erunt occurs.
- 240. Re for ris in the ending of the second person of the passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.
- 241. Dic, duc, fac, and fer, for dice, duce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of dico, duco, facio, and fero, to say, lead, make, and bear.
 - 1. Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.
- 2. Compounds generally follow the usage of the simple verbs, but the compounds of faciō with prepositions retain the final e: con-ficio, con-fice.
- 3. Sciō, I know, lacks the present imperative, and uses the future in its stead.
- 242. Future and Perfect Infinitives often omit the auxiliary, esse: amātūrum, for amātūrum esse; amātum, for amātum esse.
- 243. Undus and undī, for endus and endī, occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, especially after i: faciundus, from faciō, to make; dīcundus, from dīcō, to say.
- 244. Ancient and Rare Forms. Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus, forms in —

¹ See 238, footnote.

- Ibam for iëbam, in the Imperfect Indicative of the Fourth Conjugation:
 solbam for sciëbam. See Imperfect of eō, to go, 297.
- 2. Ibō, Ibor, for iam, iar, in the Future of the Fourth Conjugation: servibō for serviam; opperibor for opperiar. See Future of eō, 297.
- 3. im for am or em, in the Present Subjunctive: edim, edis, etc., for edam, edis, etc.; duim (from duō, for dō) for dem. In sim, velim, nōlim, mālim (295), im is the common ending.
- 4. āssō, ēssō, and sō, in the Future Perfect, and āssim, ēssim, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of the First, Second, and Third Conjugations: faxō (facso) = fēcerō; faxim = fēcerim; ausim = ausus sim (from audeo). Rare examples are: levāssō = levāverō; prohibēssō = prohibuerō; capsō = cēperō.
- 5. minō for tor, in the Future Imperative, Passive, and Deponent: arbitrāminō for arbitrātor.
- 6. ier for ī, in the Present Passive Infinitive: amārier for amārī: vi-dērier for vidēri.

FORMATION OF STEMS

245. The Verb Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation, consists of that part of the verb which is common to all the forms of both voices. The Special Stems are either identical with this stem or formed from it.

I. Present Stem

- 246. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the verb stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugation, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, amā, dēlē, and audī are both Present stems and verb stems.
- 247. The Present stem, when not the same as the verb stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:
- 1. By adding the Thematic Vowel, originally e, o, usually written %. In Latin this vowel generally takes the form i, u 1:
- regō, Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege_{/o}; rege becomes regi in regi-s, and rego becomes regu in regu-nt.
 - 2. By adding n with the thematic vowel:

cernō, Stem, cer; Present Stem, cer-ne/o; to perceive temnō, "tem; "tem-ne/o; to despise' to despise'

¹ For this phonetic change, see 25, 1, 27, 1.

3. By inserting n and adding the thematic vowel:

frangō, Stem, frag; Present Stem, frange/o; to break

4. By adding t with the thematic vowel:

plecto, Stem, plec; Present Stem, plec-te/o; to braid

5. By adding sc with the thematic vowel:

quiesco, Stem, quie; Present Stem, quie-sce/o; to rest

6. By prefixing to the stem its initial consonant with i, and adding the thematic vowel:

gīgn-ere; Stem, gen; Present Stem, gī-gn-e/o1; to beget

7. By adding **ā**, **ē**, **ī**, or **i** to the stem ²:

dom-āre	Stem,	dom	Present	Stem,	dom-ā	to tame
vid-ēre		vid	"	"	vid-ē	to see
aper-īre	44	aper	"	"	aper-ī	to uncover
cap-ere	"	cap	44	"	cap-i	to take

II. Perfect Stem

248. Vowel stems, except those in u, generally form the Perfect stem by adding v³:

amā-re	amā-vi	Stem, amā	Perfect S	tem, amā	v to love
dēlē-re	dēlē-vi	" dēlē	4.6	" dēlē	▼ to destroy
andī-re	andī-vī	" ລາເຕີໂ	44	" audi	v to hear

1. In verbs in uō, the Perfect stem is the same as the verb stem:
acu-ere acu-i Stem, acu Perfect Stem, acu to sharpen

249. Many stems in 1, m, n, r, and a few others, together with most of the verbs of the second conjugation, form the Perfect stem by adding u³:

al-ere	al-ui	Stem	, al	Perfect	Stem	, alu	to nouri sh
frem-ere	frem-uī	"	frem	44	"	fremu	to rage
ten-ēre	ten-ui	4.6	ten	44	"	tenu	to hold
ser-ere	ser-uī	66	ser	44	"	seru	to connect
doc-ere	doc-ui	"	doc	"	"	docu	to teach

¹ In the reduplicated forms gigne, gigno, the root gen takes the weak form gn.

² In the first person of the Present Indicative active, the suffixes are **50**, **50**, io, and io.

³ Perfects in vI and uI were not inherited, but are new formations. Perfects in vI are of uncertain origin, but they may have been formed on the analogy of such Perfects as fāvI, lāvI, fōvI, mōvI, vōvI, iūvI, in which v belongs to the verb stem. The ending uI is probably only a modification of vI.

250. Most mute stems form the Perfect stem by adding s¹:

```
carp-ere carp-sī Stem, carp Perfect Stem, carps to pluck reg-ere rēxi = *rēg-sī " reg " rēx = *rēgs to rule
```

251. Reduplication. — A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by reduplication, which consists in prefixing the initial consonant of the stem with the following vowel or with e:

tend-ere	te-tend-ī	Stem	, tend	Perfect	Stem	, te-tend	to stretch
pōsc-ere	po-pōsc-ī	"	pōsc	46	"	po-pōsc	to demand
curr-ere	cu-curr-ī	4.6	curr	66	"	cu-curr	to run
can-ere	ce-cin-ī	"	can	44	66	ce-cin	to sing

- 1. The vowel of the reduplication was originally e. In Latin it is assimilated to the vowel of the stem when that vowel is i, o, or u, as in didic-I, po-posc-I, cu-curr-I, but it is retained as e in all other situations.
- 2. After the reduplication, a of the stem is weakened to i in open syllables, as in can-ere, ce-ci-nī, but in closed syllables it is weakened to e, as in fall-ere, fe-fel-lī; see 24, 1 and 2. As is weakened to ī, as in cased-ere, ce-cī-dī; see 32, 2.
- 3. In verbs beginning with sp or st, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops s: spond-ēre, spo-pond-ī, to promise; stā-re, ste-t-ī, to stand.
- 4. Compounds generally drop the reduplication, but the compounds of dare, to give; discere, to learn; poscere, to demand, and stare, to stand, retain it: te-tendi, contendi; but de-di, circum-de-di; ste-ti, circum-ste-ti.
- 252. A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by lengthening the stem vowel:

em-ere	ēm-ī	Stem	, em	Perfec	t Stem	, ēm	a to buy
ag-ere	ēg-ī ⁸	"	ag	66	"	ēg	to drive
leg-ere	lēg-ī	"	leg	"	"	lēg	to read
vid-ēre	vīd-ī	6.6	vid	66	4.6	vid	to see

1. A few verbs retain the stem unchanged:

vert-ere	vert-ī	Stem, vert	Perfect Stem, vert	to turn
vis-ere	vis-i	" vīs	" " vīs	to visit

¹ The Perfect in SI is in its origin an inherited s-Aorist which has become one of the regular forms of the Latin Perfect. It corresponds to the s-Aorist of the Greek, Sanskrit, and other kindred tongues.

² The compounds of dare which are of the Third Conjugation change e inte-i in the reduplication: ad-de-re, ad-di-di, for *ad-de-di, to add.

⁸ Observe that a in ag-ere and i in its compounds, as in ab-ig-ere, ab-eg-i, are not only lengthened, but also changed to 5.

PARTICIPIAL SYSTEM

253. The Participial System has no common stem, but it is represented in the Principal Parts of the verb by the neuter of the Perfect Participle, or by the Supine, each of which is formed by adding turn to the verb stem:

amā-re	amã-tum	to love
doc-ēre	doc-tum	to teach
can-ere	can-tum	to sing
audi-re	audī-tum	to hear

1. In stems in d and t, the union of d-t and of t-t in the Supine and Participle produces, according to phonetic law, ss, regularly reduced to s after long syllables:

laed-ere	*laed-tum	lae-sum	to hurt
vert-ere	*vert-tum	ver-sum	to turn

2. A few stems, chiefly those in 1 and r, following the analogy of stems in d and t, add -sum in forming the Supine or Participle:

fal-lere ¹	fal-sum	to deceive
curr-ere	cur-sum ²	to run

VERBAL ENDINGS

254. The Endings which are appended to the verb stem in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb distinguish the different Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons.

I. Personal Endings

255. The personal endings, some of which appear to have been formed from ancient pronominal stems, distinguish Voice, Number, and Person. They are in general as follows:

Person Sing. First Second Third	ACTIVE m, ō s t	Passive r, or ris tur	MEANING I thou, you he, she, it
Plur. First	mus	mur	we
Second	tis	minī ^s	you
Third	nt	ntur	they

¹ The second 1 for n belongs to the present stem, not to the verb stem.

² The second r for s disappears before s.

⁸ Mini was not originally a personal ending, but the plural of a Passive Parti-

1. These are the regular personal endings in the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods, except the Perfect Indicative active, which has special endings, as seen in ful:

	SINGULAR '	PLURAL
First Person	fu-ī	fu-i-mus ¹
Second "	fu- is-tī	fu -is-tis
Third "	fu- i-t	fu- ëru-nt o r fu-ër-e

2. The Imperative Mood has the following personal endings:

			ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
			SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
	Second	Person	_	te	re	minī 2
Fut.	66	"	tō	tōte	tor	
	Third	- 46	tō	ntō	tor	ntor

II. Mood and Tense Signs

- 256. The Mood and Tense Signs include that part of the several verbal forms which stands between the verb stem and the personal endings: s-i-mus, s-i-tis; amā-bā-mus, amā-bi-tis, audī-vi-mus, audī-verā-mus.
- 1. The Subjunctive has a long vowel before the personal endings, as in s.I-mus, s.I-tis, mone-ā-mus, but this vowel is shortened before final m and t, and in the Perfect generally before mus and tis: audi-am, audi-at, amāver-imus, amāver-itis.
- 2. The Indicative has no special mood sign, and the Imperative is distinguished by the personal endings.
- 3. The Future in the Third and Fourth Conjugations is in origin a Subjunctive, but it has assumed the force of the Future Indicative.

ciple, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (μ eroi). Amāminī, originally amāminī estis, means you are loved, as amātī estis means you have been loved.

¹ These peculiar endings have been produced by the union of two tenses originally distinct, the Perfect and the s-Aorist, both of which are preserved in the Greek and the Sanskrit. Fui-t and fui-mus are regular Perfect formations with the ordinary personal endings of the Latin verb, but fu-I has the ending I of uncertain origin, though it may have been derived from the Personal ending of the Middle Voice. Fu-is-ti, fu-is-tis, and fu-sr-unt are s-Aorist formations, but fu-is-ti preserves in ti a modified form of the original personal ending of the Perfect.

² The ending mini is probably in origin an old Infinitive which has assumed the force of an Imperative, like the corresponding form in Homeric Greek. If so, it is to be distinguished from the same form used in other moods.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

First Conjugation

257. Principal Parts in ō, āre, āvī, ātum:

amō amāre amāvī amātum to love
So all regular verbs of this conjugation.

1. Deponent verbs of this conjugation form their principal parts as follows:

hortor hortārī

hortātus sum

to exhort

2. The following verbs have both regular and irregular forms:

ap-plic-ō 1	-āre	applicāvī	applicui	••	applicitum	to join
ē-nec-ō ²	-āre	ēnecāvī	ēnecuī	ēnecātum	ēnectum	to kill
fric-ō	-āre	_	fricuī	fricātum	frictum	to rub
pōt-ō	-āre	pōtāvī	_	põtātum	pōtum	to drink

258. Principal Parts in ō, āre, uī, itum, tum:

	domō	domāre	domuī	domitum	to tame
So	cubō, to r	ecline	in-crepō,	to rebuke	vetō, to forbid
	secō	secāre	secui	sectum	to cut

- 1. Micō,8 to glitter, and tonō, to thunder, lack the Participial System.
- 2. Sono, sonare, sonui, to sound, has the Future Participle sonatūrus.

259. Principal Parts in ō, āre, ī, tum:

PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION OR LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

dō	dare	dedī	datum	to give
stō	stāre	stetī	statum	to stand
iuvō	iuvāre	iūvī	iūtum 4	to assist
lavō	lavāre	lāvī	lavātum, lautu.n	to wash

1. In the inflection of do, dare, the characteristic a is short become the forms das, da, dans.

 $^{^1}$ So ex-plicō and im-plicō, but denominatives in plicō are regular, as duplicō, $to\ double$.

² The simple neco is regular.

⁸ But dī-micō is regular, and re-sonō has Perfect re-sonāvī.

⁴ Iuvo has Fut. Part. iuvātūrus; in compounds iūtūrus.

⁵ This short vowel is explained by the fact that do, dare, is formed directly from the root do, weak form da, without the suffix which gave rise to ā in other verbs of this conjugation; dās, dā, dāns follow the analogy of other verbs in ō, āre.

- 2. Dissyllabic compounds of do are of the Third Conjugation: add-do, addere, addidi, additum, to add.
- 3. Compounds of stō, stāre, generally lack the participial system, and dissyllabic compounds have stitī in the Perfect. Dīstō and exstō have only the Present System.

Second Conjugation

260. Principal Parts in eō, ēre, ēvī, ētum:

	dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum	to destroy
So	com-pleō, to	fill ¹	fleō, to weep)	neō, to spin
Note	aboleō	abolēre	abolēvī	abolitum	to destroy
and	cieō	ciēre	cīvī	citum ²	to arouse

261. Principal Parts in eo, ere, ui, itum:

	moneō	monēre	monui	monitum	to advise
	noceō	nocēre	nocui	nocitum	to hurt
	habeō	habēre	habui	habitum	to have
So	ad-hibeō, to co-erceō,4 to placeō, to pl	check	dē-beō, ⁸ t ex-erceō, ⁴ taceō, to	to train	prae-beō, s to offer mereō, to earn terreō, to terrify
Note	caleō	calēre	caluī	calitūrus	to be warm
So	careō, to be	withou t	doleō, to	grieve	iaceō, to lie
	pareo, to ob	ey	valeō, <i>to</i>	be strong	-

1. Many verbs lack the Participial System:

	arceō	arcēre	arcuī	_	to keep off
	āreō	ārēre	āruī	_	to be dry
So	o egeō, to need horreō, to shudder		ēmineō, te	stand forth	flöreö, to bloom
			lateō, to l	e hid	niteō, to shine
	oleō, to s	mell	palleō, to	be pale	pateo, to be open
	sileo, to be silent stupeo, to be amazed		splendeō, to shine		studeo, to desire
			timeō, to	fear	torpeo, to be dull
	vigeō, to thrive		vireō, to be green		

2. Some verbs, derived chiefly from adjectives, have only the Present System in general use:

aveō, to desire	frīgeō, to be cold	hebeō, to be dull
immineō, to threaten	maereō, to mourn	polleō, to be strong

¹ So other compounds of the obsolete pleō: ex-pleō, im-pleō, etc.

² Compounds are of the Fourth Conjugation.

⁸ Dē-beō is from dē-habeō, prae-beō from praehabeō.

⁴ Compounds of arceo; see 1 below.

262. Principal Parts in eo, ere, ui, tum, sum:

	doceō	docēre	docui	doctum	to teach
	misceō	miscēre	miscui	mīxtum	to mix
	torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostum	to roast
	cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsui	cēnsum	to assess
Note	teneō	tenēre	tenuī	_	to hold
S	abs-tineō,	con-tineō, p	er-tineō, an	d sus-tineō , l	out note -
		-		.	

dētineō dētinēre dētinuī dētentum to detain

So dis-tineō, to keep apart ob-tineō, to occupy re-tineō, to retain

263. Principal Parts in eo, ere, si, tum, or sum:

augeō	augēre	auxī 1	auctum	to increase
indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsī	indultum	to indulge
torqueō	torquēre	torsī	tortum	to twist
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum	to burn
haereō	haerēre	haesī ²	haesum	to stick
iubeō	iubēre	iussi	iussum	to order
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum	to remain
mulceō	mulcēre	\mathbf{mulsi}	mulsum	to soothe
$\mathbf{mulge}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$	mulgēre	mulsī	mulsum	to milk
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsu m	to laugh
suadeo	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum	to advise
tergeō	tergēre	tersī	tersum	to wipe off
algeō	algēre	alsī	_	to be cold
fulgeō	fulgēre	fulsī		to shine
urgeō	urgēre	ursī		to press
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī	_	to shine
lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxī		to mourn

264. Principal Parts in eō, ēre, ī, tum:

PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

	caveō faveō foveō	cavēre favēre fovēre	cāvī fāvī fōvī	cautum fautum fōtum	to take heed to favor to cherish
So	moveō, to mo		voveō, to vo		to cherish
Note	paveō	pavēre	pāvī	_	to be terrifled

¹ Observe that auxi is from *aug-sī.

² The stem of haere \bar{o} is haes. The Present adds \bar{o} and changes \bar{s} to \bar{r} between vowels. In haesi, \bar{s} standing for $\bar{s}\bar{s}$ is not changed.

265. Principal Parts in eō, ēre, ī, sum:

1. Perfect with Reduplication

mordeō	mordēre	mo-mordī	morsum	to bite
spondeō	spondēre	spo-pondī ¹	spōnsum	to promise
tondeō	tondēre	to-tondī	tōnsum ·	to shear
pendeō	pendēre	pe-pendī		to hang

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessum ²	to sit
videō	vidēre	vīdī	visum	to see

3. PERFECT WITH UNCHANGED STEM

prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsum ⁸	to breakfast
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī	_	to creak

266. Deponent Verbs

	liceor	licērī	licitus sum	to bid
	pol-liceor	pollicērī	pollicitus sum	to promise
So	mereor, to deserve;		misereor, to pity;	vereor, to fear
	reor	eor rērī ratus sum		to think
	fateor	fatērī	fassus sum ⁴	to confess
	medeor	medērī		to heal
	tueor	tuērī		to protect

267. SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS, - DEPONENT IN THE PERFECT

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	to dare
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum	to rejoice
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	to be accustomed

Third Conjugation

STEM IN A CONSONANT

268. Principal Parts in ō, ere, sī, tum:5

	carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum	to pluck
So	dē-cerpō, to	pluck off	ex-cerpō, t	o choose out	sculpō, to carve

¹ For reduplication in compounds, see **251**, **4**; **re-spondeō**, **re-spondēre**, **re-spondī**, **re-spōnsum**, *to reply*.

² So circum-sedeð and super-sedeð. Other compounds thus: ob-sideð, ob-sidere, ob-sedi, ob-sessum, but some compounds lack the Participial System.

⁸ See 224. 1.

⁴ But con-fiteor, con-fiteri, con-fessus sum; so pro-fiteor.

⁵ For phonetic changes, see 51-56.

	nūbō	nübere	nūpsī	nūptum	to marry
	scrībō	scribere	scripsi	scriptum	to write
	gerō	gerere	gessī	gestum 1	to carry
	ūrō	ūre re	ussī	üstum 1	to burn
	dicō	dīcere	dīxī ²	dictum	to say
	dūco	dūcere	dūxī	ductum	to lead
	af-flīgō	affligere	afflixi	afflictum	to strike down
	cingō	cingere	cīnxī ²	cīnctum	to gird
	fingō	fingere	fīnxī	fictum	to mould
	pingō	pingere	pīnxī	pīctum	to paint
	iungō	iungere	iūnxī	iūnctum	to join
	dī-ligō	dīligere	dīlēxī	dīlēctum ³	to love
	neg-legō	neglegere	neglēxī	neglēctum	to neglect
	regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum	to rule
	tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctum	to cover
	coquō	coquere	coxī	coctum	to cook
	ex-stinguō	exstinguere	exstinxi	exstinctum 4	to extinguish
	trahō	trahere	trāxī	trāctum	to draw
	vehō	vehere	vexi	vectum	to carry
	vīvō	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum	to live
	cōmō	comere	cōmpsi ⁵	cōmptum ⁵	to arrange
So	dēmō, to tak	е агоау	promo, to	bring forth	sūmō, to take
Note	e con-temnō	contemnere	contempsi	contemptum	to despise

269. Principal Parts in ō, ere, sī, sum:

	cēdō	cēdere	cessī	cessum	to give place
	claudō	claudere	clausī	clausum	to close
So	con-clūdō, to	enclose	ex-clūdo, t	o exclude	ē-vādō,6 to go out
	plaudo, to a	oplaud	ex-plōdō, t	o hoot off	dīvidō, to divide
laedō, to hurt		rt	lūdō, <i>to play</i>		rādō, to shave
rōdō, to gnaw		w	trūdō, <i>to thrust</i>		
	flectō	flectere	flexī	flexum	to bend
So pecto, to comb		ıb	plectō, to braid		
	mittō	mittere	mīsī	missum	to send
	premō	premere	pressi	pressum	to press

¹ The stem of gero is ges, and that of uro is us.

² Observe that in these and the following Perfects in xI, the tense ending is 8I, and that s of this ending unites with the final mute of the stem and forms x: *dīc-sī, dīxI; *cing-sī, cīnxI; see 51.

⁸ So dē-ligō and ē-ligō; intel-legō like neg-legō. For legō, see 270, 2.

⁴ So other compounds of stinguo, which is rare and defective.

⁵ A euphonic p is here developed between m and s, and between m and t (52, 5).

⁶ So other compounds of vado, which is rare and defective.

⁷ Compounds of laedo have I for ae, as in il-lido.

fīgō	figere	fīxī	fixum	to fasten	. 4
mergō	mergere	mersi	mersum	to sink	
spargō	spargere	sparsi	sparsum	to scatter	:

270. Principal Parts in ō, ere, ī, tum:

1. PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION

	ab-dō	abdere	ab-di-dī	abditum 1	to put away ,
So	ad-dō, to add	to	crē-dō, to	believe -	vēn-dō, to sell
	pangō	pangere	: { pe-pigī } pēgī	panctum pāctum	} to make fast
	im-pingō	impingere	impēgī	i m pāctum	to hurl against
	pungō	pungere	pu-pugī	pūnctum	to prick
	tangō	tangere	te-tigī 2	tāctum	to touch
	tendō	tendere	te-tendi ²	tentum	to stretch
	sistō	sistere	sti-tī	statum	to place
	cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	cōnstitī	_	to take a stand
	bibō	bibere	bi-bī ⁸		to drink
	canō	canere	ce-cinī 4	_	to sing
	dīscō	dīscere	di-dicI ⁵		to learn
Not	e tollō	tollere	sus-tuli ⁶	sub-lātum	to raise

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

agō	agere	ēgī	āctum	to drive
per-agō	peragere	perēgī	perāctum ⁷	to finish
ab-igō	abigere	abēgī	abāctum	to drive away
cōgō	cōgere	coēgi	coāctum	to collect
emō `	emere	ēmī	ēm-p-tum ⁸	to buy
ad-imō	adimere	adēmī	adēmptum	to take away
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctum	to break
per-fringō	perfringere	perfrēgī	perfrāctum	to shatter
icō	icere	īcī	ictum	to strike
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctum	to read
per-legō	perlegere	perlēgī	perlēctum	to read through
col-ligō	colligere	collēgī	collēctum	to collect

¹ So all dissyllabic compounds of dō; see 259, 2.

² Compounds lose the reduplication; see 251, 4.

⁸ Bib5 is in form reduplicated, both in the Present and in the Perfect.

⁴ Most compounds of cano have ui in the Perfect; see 272, 1.

⁵ Reduplication di; stem, originally ditc, became dic, as seen in di-dic-I.

⁶ The Perfect of tollo was originally te-tuli (251, 4).

⁷ So circum-agō: most compounds like ab-igō. Cōgō is for co-agō.

⁸ So co-emō. For como, demo, promo, and sumo, see 268; other compounds like ad-imo.

For dī-ligō and neg-legō, see 268.

re-linquō rumpō vincō	relinquere rumpere vincere	reliquī rūpī vīcī	relīctum ¹ ruptum victum	to leave to burst to conquer
	3. Perfec	T WITH UNC	HANGED STEM	
solvō	solvere	solvī	solütum ²	to loose
volvā	volvere	volvi	volütum 2	to roll

271. Principal Parts in ō, ere, ī, sum:

1. PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION

cadō in-cidō caedō in-cidō pendō tundō con-tundō fallō pellō	cadere incidere caedere incidere pendere tundere contundere fallere pellere	ce-cidi incidi ⁸ ce-cidi incidi ⁸ pe-pendi tu-tudī contudī ⁸ fe-felli pe-puli	cāsum incāsum incāsum incīsum pēnsum tūnsum, tūsum contūsum falsum pulsum	to crush to deceive to drive
re-pellō	repellere	reppuli	repulsum	to drive back
currō	currere	cu-curri ⁵		to run
parcō	parcere	pe-perci		to spare
pōscō	pōscere	po-pōsci		to demand
dē-pōscō	dēpōscere	dē-po-pōsci ⁶		to demand

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

edō fundō	edere fundere	ēdī fūdī	ēsum fūsum	to eat to pour
	3. Perfect	with Unce	HANGED STEM	
ac-cendō	accendere	accendi	accēnsum 7	to kindle
dē-fendō	dēfende re	dēfendī	dēfēnsum ⁷	to defend
dē-scendō	dēscendere	dēscendī	dēscēnsum ⁷	to descend
ex-cūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsum	to forge
findō	findere	fidī	fissum	to split

¹ The simple verb is linquo, linquere, liqui, —, to leave.

² Formed from soluō and voluō, like statūtum from statuō.

⁸ Observe that these compounds lose the reduplication.

⁴ Some compounds of cado lack the Participial System.

⁵ Ex-curro and prae-curro generally retain the reduplication.

⁶ Observe that de-posco retains the reduplication: see 251, 4.

⁷ So other compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and of scando.

scindō	scindere	scidi	scissum	to rend
mandō	mandere	mandī	mānsum	to chew
pandō	pandere	.pandī	passum	to unfold
pos-sidō	possidere	possēdī	possessum	to seize
pre-hendō 1	prehendere	prehendī	prehēnsum	to grasp
vertō	vertere	verti	versum	to turn
ē-verrõ	ēverrere	ēverrī	ēversum	to sweep out
per-cellō	percellere	perculī ²	perculsum	to beat down
vellō	vellere	vellī	vulsum	to pluck
vīsō	visere	visi	vīsum	to visit

Here belongs the semi-deponent verb

fidō fidere fisus sum to trust

272. Principal Parts in ō, ere, uī, itum:

	gignō in-cumbō molō vomō	gignere incumbere molere vomere	genui ⁸ incubui molui vomui	genitum incubitum ⁴ molitum vomitum	to beget to lean upon to grind to vomit
Note	pōnō	põnere	posui	positum	to place

1. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

concinō	concinere	concinui	_	to sing together 5
fremō	fremere	fremuī	_	to roar
gemō	gemere	gemuī		to groan
tremō	tremere	tremui	_	to tremble
strepō	strepere	strepui	_	to rattle

273. Principal Parts in ō, ere, ui, tum:

alō colō	alere colere	aluī coluī	altum ⁶ cultum	to nourish to cultivate
in-colō	incolere	incolui	-	to inhabit
cōn-serō	conserere	conserui	cōnsertum	to connect
cōnsulō	cōnsulere	consului	cōnsultum	to consult
occulō	occulere	occuluī	occultum	to hide
texō	texere	texuī	textum	to weave

¹ Often written prende, prendere, etc.

² Originally the simple verb was doubtless reduplicated.

³ The stem is gen in gen-uī, but gn in gī-gn-ō; the Present is reduplicated.

⁴ So other compounds of cumbo.

⁵ So most compounds of cano; see 270, 1.

⁶ Or alitum.

1. Note the following:

metō metere messui messum to reap nectō nectere nexui nexum to bind

2. Some verbs from consonant stems have only the Present System in general use.

angō angere to trouble hīscō hiscere to gape claudō claudere to be lame lambō lambere to lave fatīscō fatīscere to gape temnō temnere to despise furō furere to rave vādō vādere to go glīscō gliscere to swell vergō vergere to incline

274. A few consonant stems form the Present in 15 and the other Principal Parts like other consonant stems:

capiō capere cēpī captum to tàke ac-cipiō accipere accēpī acceptum to accept cupivi 2 cupiō cupere cupītum² to desire faciō facere fēci factum to make

Passive irregular: fiō, fierī, factus sum; see 296. So cale-faciō, cale-fiō, satis-faciō, satis-fiō.

conficio conficere confeci confectum to accomplish

Passive regular: conficior, confici, confectus sum. So all compounds
of facio with prepositions; other compounds like cale-facio.

fodiō fodere fōdī fossum to dia fugiō fugere fügī fugitūrus to flee ef-fugiō effugere effūgi to flee away iaciō iacere iēcī iactum to throw ab-iciō 8 abicere 3 abiectum abiēcī to throw away pariō parere peperi partum to bring forth quatiō quatere quassum to shake concutere con-cutiō concussi concussum to shake rapiō raptum rapere rapui to seize sapiō sapere sapivi 2 to savor of

1. Here belong the compounds of the obsolete verbs lacio, to entice, and specio, to look:

al-liciō allicere allexī allectum to entice So il-licio and pel-licio, to decoy, but e-licio thus: ē-liciō ēlicere ēlicuī ēlicitum to draw out con-spicio conspicere conspexi conspectum to behold

¹ The Perfect in sul seems to be a double formation: sul = si + ui.

² Observe that these three forms are from I-stems.
⁸ See 58.6.

STEM IN A VOWEL

275. Principal Parts in uō, uere, uī, ūtum:

exuŏ	exuere	exuī	exūtum	to put off
induō	induere	induī	indūtum	to put on
statuō	statuerė	statuī	statūtum	to place
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūţum	to impart

1. So nearly all verbs in uo, but note the following:

ruō	ruere	ruī	rutum ¹	to fall
dī-ruō	diruere	dīruī	dīrutum	to destroy
fluō	fluere	fluxī ²	fluxum	to flow
struō	struere	strūxī ²	strüctum	to build

2. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

acuō	acuere	acuī		to sharpen
arguō	arguere	arguī		to accuse
ab-nuō	abnuer e	abnui		to refuse
con-gruō	congruere	congrui	_	to agree
luō, to wo	<i>ish</i> m	etuō, to fear	re-s	puō, to spurn

276. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form their Present system from consonant stems, but their Perfect and Participial systems from vowel stems after the analogy of other conjugations:

sternő pro-sternő dő-cernő ső-cernő spernő arcesső capesső lacesső pető quaerő con-quirő rudő	sternere prosternere decernere secernere spernere arcessere capessere lacessere petere quaerere conquirere rudere	strāvī prostrāvī dēcrēvī sēcrēvī sprēvī arcessivī capessivī lacessivī petīvī s quaesīvī conquisīvī rudīvī	strātum prostrātum dēcrētum sēcrētum sprētum arcessītum capessītum lacessītum petītum quaesītum conquisītum	to spread out to overthrow to decide to separate to spurn to summon to seize to provoke to seek to seek to collect to bray
terō	terere	trīvī	trītum	to rub

¹ Future Participle ruitūrus.

So

² Fluxi from *flug-si; struxi follows the analogy of fluxi.

⁸ Sometimes petil.

1. Note the peculiarities in the following verbs:

facessō	facessere	facessi	facessitum	to perform
linō	linere	lēvī	litum	to smear
serō	serere	sēvī	satum	to sow
con-sero	conserere	consevi	consitum	to plant
sinō	sinere	sivi	situm	to permit
dē-sinō	dēsinere	dēsiī ¹	, dēsitum	to desist
incessõ	incessere	incessivi	_	to attack

INCEPTIVE OR INCHOATIVE VERBS

- 277. Verbs in scō are called Inceptive or Inchoative verbs because most of them denote the Beginning of an Action. They are of three varieties:
- 1. Primitive Inceptives, formed directly from roots or from lost verbs, generally without inceptive meaning.
- 2. Verbal Inceptives, formed from other verbs, generally with inceptive meaning.
- 3. Denominative Inceptives, formed from nouns and adjectives, chiefly from adjectives.
- 278. Primitive Inceptives; Perfect in vi, or in i with Reduplication.

pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum	to feed
crēscō	crēscere ·	crēvī	crētum	to grow
quiēscō	quiēscere	quiēvī	qui ētum	to rest
nōscō	nōscere	nōvi	nōtum	to come to know
īgnōscō ²	ignöscere	īgnōvī	ignotum	to pardon
cōgnōscō 2	cognoscere	cōgnōvī	cōgnitum	to ascertain
dīscō	discere	didicī	_	to learn
pōscō	pōscere	popōscī		to demand

279. Many Verbal Inceptives have only the Present System in general use, but some take the Perfect of their Primitives whenever the occasion requires it.

ārēscō	ārēscere	ārui	 to become dry	from āreō
calēscō	calēscere	calui	 to become warm	" caleō

¹ Here v is dropped, desii from desivi.

² Īgnōscō is compounded of in, meaning not, and gnōscō, the full form of nōscō which has lost its initial g. Cōgnōscō is compounded of co and gnōscō.

flōrēscō	flörēscere	flōruī	-	to begin to bloom	n from flöreö
ārdēscō	ā rdēscer e	ārsī		to take fire	" ārdeō
ab-olēscō	abolēscere	abolēvī	_	to disappear	" ab-oleō

1. A very few Verbal Inceptives have also certain forms of the Participial System:

ad-olēsc-ō	-ere	adolēvī	adultum	to grow up	from	ad, oleō
ex-olēsc-ð	-ere	exolēvī	exolētum	to go out of use	"	ex, oleō 1
ob-solēsc-ō	-ere	obsolēvī	obsolētum	to go out of use	"	ob, soleō
in-veterāsc-ō	-ere	inveterāvī	inveterātum	to grow old	"	inveterō
con-cupisc-ō	-ere	concupivi	concupitum	to desire	66	con, cupiō
scisc-ō	-ere	scīvī ·	scītum	to enact	66	sciō

280. Many Denominative Inceptives have only the Present System, but some have the Perfect in ui:

crēbrēsc-ō	-ere	crēbruī		to grow frequent	from	crēber
dūrēsc-ō	-ere	dūruī		to grow hard	"	dūrus
ē-vānēsc-ō	-ere	ēvānui		to disappear	66	ē, vānus
mātūrēsc-ō	-ere	mātūruī		to ripen	"	mātūrus
ob-mūtēsc-ō	-ere	obmūtui		to grow dumb	"	ob, mūtus
ob-surdēsc-ō	-ere	ōbsurduī	_	to grow deaf	"	ob, surdus

DEPONENT VERBS

281. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in tus sum:

fruor	fruī	frūctus sum ²	to enjoy
per-fru	or perfrui	perfrüctus sum	to enjoy fully
fungor	fungī	fünctus sum	to perform
queror	queri	questus sum	to complain
loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	to speak
sequor	sequi	secūtus sum	to follow
per-seq	uor persequi	persecūtus sum ⁸	to pursue
Note morior	morī	mortuus sum 4	to die
also liquor	līquī		to melt
ringor	ringī		to growl

282. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in sus sum:

gradior	gradī	gressus sum		to walk
in-gredior	ingredī	ingressus sum	•	to go int o

¹ Or from ex, soleō, like ob-soleō from ob, soleō.

² Fut. Part. fruitūrus.

⁸ So other compounds of sequor.

^{1.} A. The Future Participle of morior is moriturus.

lābor	lābī	lāpsus sum	to slip
patior	patī	passus sum	to suffer
per-petior	perpeti	pe rpessus sum	to endure
ūtor	ūti	ūsus sum	to use
nitor	nītī	nīsus sum, nīxus sum	to strive
am-plector	amplectī	amplexus sum	to embrace

Note re-vertor, reverti; Perfect, reverti, rarely reversus sum, to return.

283. Deponent Verbs with Inceptive Forms:

apiscor	apisci		to reach
ad-ipīscor	adipisci	adeptus sum	to acquire
com-miniscor	comminisci	commentus sum	to devise
re-miniscor	reminīscī		to remember
ex-pergiscor	expergisci	experrectus sum	to awake
nanciscor	nancisci	nanctus (nactus) sum	to obtain
näscor	nāscī	nātus sum	to be born
ob-liviscor	oblivisci	oblītus sum	to forget
paciscor	pacisci	pactus sum	to covenant
pro-ficiscor	proficisci	profectus sum	to set out
ulcīscoŗ	ulcīscī	ultus sum	to avenge
īrāscor	īrāscī		to be angry
vescor	vesci		to eat

1. Note the following Semi-Deponent verb:

fido fidere fisus sum to trus

Fourth Conjugation

284. Principal Parts in io, ire, ivi, itum:

audiō audīre audīvī audītum to hear

1. All regular verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts like audiō, but note the following:

sepeliō	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultum ¹	to bury
sitiõ	sitīre	sitīvī		to thirs
vāgiō	vāgīre	vāgīvī	_	to cry

2. V is often lost in the Perfect: audil for audivi; see 288, 2.

285. Principal Parts in io, ire, ui, tum:

amiciō	amicīre	amicui 2	amictum	to wrap about
a pe riō	aperire	aperui	apertum	to open

¹ With irregular formation.

² The Perfect is rare and late.

operiō	operī re	operuī	opertum	to cover
sa liō	salire	saluī, saliī		to leap
dē-siliō	dēsilīre	dēsiluī, dēsiliī		to leap down

286. Principal Parts in io, ire, si, tum or sum:

farciō	farcīre	farsī	fartum ¹	to fill
re-ferciō	refercire	refersī	refertum	to stuff
fulciō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultum	to prop up
hauriō	haurire	hausī ²	haustum ⁸	to draw
saepiō	saepīre	saepsī	saeptum	to hedge in
sanciō	sancire	sānxī	sānctum	to ratify
sarciō	sarcire	sarsī	sartum	to patch
vinciō	vincīre	v in x ī	vinctum	to bind
rauciō	raucīre	(rausi 4)	rausum	to be hoarse
sentiō	sentire	sēnsī	sēnsum	to feel

287. Principal Parts in io, ire, i, tum:

1. PERFECT ORIGINALLY REDUPLICATED

com-periō	comperire	comperî ⁵	compertum	to learn
re-periō	reperire	re-p-peri	repertum	to find out

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

veniō	venīre	• v ēnī	ventum	to come
ad-veniō	advenīre	advēnī	adventum	to arrive
in-veniō	invenire	invēnī	inventum	to find out

- 288. A few verbs of this conjugation have only the present system in general use. The following are the most important:
- Desideratives, but ēsuriō, to desire to eat, has the Future Participle ēsurītūrus.
 - 2. Also

balbūtiō, to stammer feriō, to strike ganniō, to bark ineptiō, to trifle sāgiō, to discern superbiō, to be haughty

4 This verb is exceedingly rare and the Perfect without good authority.

¹ C disappears between r and s, l and s, r and t, l and t; see 58, 1.

² Hausi is simplified from haus-si; the stem is haus; haurio from hausio.

⁸ Fut. Part. hausūrus.

⁵ The reduplicated form of the simple verb was pe-peri. We find a trace of the reduplication in the first p in re-p-peri, from re-pe-peri.

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DEPONENT VERBS

289. All regular Deponent Verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts as follows:

blandior	blandīrī	blandītus sum	to flatter
1. The following	ng are somew	hat irregular :	
ex-perior	experiri	expertus sum	to try
op-perior	opperiri	oppertus sum	to await
orior 1	orīrī	ortus sum	to rise
ad-orior	adorīrī	adortus sum	to assail
as-sentior	assentīrī	assēnsus sum	to assent
mētior	mētīrī	mēnsus sum	to measure
ōrdior	ōrdirī	ōrsus sum	to begin

Irregular Verbs

- 290. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preeminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum, edō, ferō, volō, fiō, eō, queō, and their compounds.
- 1. The inflection of sum has already been given (205). Most of its compounds—ab-sum, ad-sum, dē-sum, ob-sum, prae-sum, etc.—are inflected in the same way, but ab-sum has ā-fuī, ā-futūrus, and a Present Participle ab-sēns, absent. Prae-sum has a Present Participle prae-sēns, present. Pos-sum and prō-sum require special treatment.

291 . Po	ossum	posse	\mathbf{potu}	to be able
		INDICAT	TIVE	
	SINGULAR	•	PLU	RAL
Pres. Imp. Fut. Perf. Plup. F. P.	possum, potes, poteram ² poterō potul potueram potuerō	potest	possumus, p poterāmus poterimus s potuimus potuerāmus potuerimus	otestis, possunt

¹ In the Present Indicative and Imperative orior is inflected as a verb of the Third Conjugation: orior, oreris, oritur, etc.; orere; in the Imperfect Subjunctive, it has both orerer, orereris, etc., and orirer, orireris, etc. So all compounds of orior, except ad-orior, which has only forms of the Fourth Conjugation.

² Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poteras, poterat, etc. So in the other tenses: potui, potuisti, etc.

⁸ Poterunt, third person plural, but poterint also occurs.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres. possim, possis, possit

possīmus, possītis, possint

Imp. possem
Perf. potuerim
Plup. potuissem

possēmus potuerimus potuissēmus

Infinitive

PARTICIPLE

Pres. posse Perf. potuisse Pres. potens (as an adjective)

- 1. Possum forms its present system from a compound of pot (for potis, pote), able, and sum. Pot-sum becomes possum by assimilation, and potesse and pot-essem are shortened to posse and possem.¹
- 2. The parts of **possum** are sometimes used separately, and then **potis**, **pote** is indeclinable: **potis sum**, *I am able*; **potis sumus**, we are able, etc.
- 3. Possum derives its Perfect, potul, and its Present Participle, potons, from the verb potore, which has otherwise disappeared from the language.
- 4. In rare instances passive forms occur in early Latin, as potestur = potest, poterātur = poterat, used with Passive Infinitives.

292. Prō-sum

prod-esse

prō-fuī

to profit

Prō-sum is compounded of **prō**, **prōd**, **for**, and **sum**. It retains d from **prōd**, when the simple verb begins with **e**, but otherwise it is inflected like **sum**:

pro-sum, prod-es, prod-est, pro-sumus, prod-estis, pro-sunt, etc.

293. Edō

edere

ēdī

ēsum

to eat

In certain parts of the present system this verb has both regular and irregular forms, as follows:

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

Pres. { edd	edis ēs	edit ēst	edimus	editis ēstis	edunt
(ēs	ēst		ēstis	

SUBJUNCTIVE

Imn	{ ederem ēssem	ederēs	ederet	ederēmus	ederētis	ederent
imp.	₹ ēssem	ēssēs	ēsset	ēssēmus	ēssētis	ēssent

¹ But the full forms also occur: pot-esse, pot-essem, etc.; also pot-isse and pot-issent.

IMPERATIVE

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Pres.} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{ede} & \text{edite} \\ \text{ës} & \text{ëste} \\ \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Fut.} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{edit\bar{o}} & \text{edit\bar{o}te} \\ \text{ëst\bar{o}} & \text{ëst\bar{o}te} \end{array} \right. \end{array}$

eduntō

INFINITIVE

Pres.

edere

ēsse

Passive Voice

INDICATIVE

 $\mathbf{Pres.} \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{edor} & \mathbf{ederis} & \mathbf{editur} & \mathbf{edimur} & \mathbf{edimin} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{eduntur} \\ & & \mathbf{\bar{e}stur} \end{array} \right.$

SUBJUNCTIVE

 $\mathbf{Imp.} \, \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{ederer} & \mathbf{ederetur} & \mathbf{ederemur} & \mathbf{ederemini} & \mathbf{ederentur} \\ & \mathbf{essetur} \end{array} \right.$

- In all the other tenses this verb has the regular inflection, but forms in im for am occur in the Present Subjunctive: edim, edis, edit, etc., for edam, edäs, edat, etc.
- 2. Observe that the shorter forms have **5** in the root syllable, but that otherwise they are like the corresponding forms of the verb, **sum**. They are the favorite forms in classical Latin.
- 3. Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but note com-edō com-edere com-ēdī com-ēsum or com-ēstum to eat up

294. Ferō

ferre

tulī

lātum

to bear

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

INDICATI SINGULAR

Pres. ferö, fers, fert
Imp. ferebam²
Fut. feram
Perf. tuli
Plup. tuleram
F. P. tulerö

PLURAL ferimus, fertis, ferunt

ferēbāmus ferēmus tulimus tulerāmus tulerimus

¹ Fer-s, fer-ti, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, are formed without the thematic vowel.

² Inflect the several tenses in full: ferebam, ferebas, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres. feram ferāmus ferrēmus 1 Imp. ferrem Perf. tulerim tulerimus Plup. tulissem tulissēmus

IMPERATIVE

Pres. ferte fer fertōte Perf. fertō fertō feruntō

Infinitive PARTICIPLE Pres. ferre 1 Pres. ferens

Perf. tulisse

Fut. lātūrum esse Fnt. lātūrus

GERUND SUPINE

Gen. ferendī Dat. ferendō

Acc. ferendum Acc. lātum Abl. ferendō Abl. lātū

Passive Voice

feror ferrī lātus sum to be borne

INDICATIVE

SINGULAR PLURAL Pres. feror, ferris, fertur ferimur, feriminī, feruntur Imp. ferēbar ferēbāmur Fut. ferar ferēmur Perf. lātus sum lāti sumus Plup. lātus eram lātī erāmus F. P. lātus erō lātī erimus SUBJUNCTIVE Pres. ferar ferāmur

Imp. ferrer ferrēmur Perf. lātus sim lātī sīmus Plup. lātus essem lātī essēmus

¹ Fer-rem, fer-res, etc., from fer-sem, fer-ses, etc., like es-sem, es-ses, etc.; and fer-re from fer-se like es-se, are formed without the thematic vowel. Several other forms have the same peculiarity.

IMPERATIVE

Pres. ferre ferimini
Fut. fertor —
fertor feruntor

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. ferri

- 1. Fero is inflected from two independent stems, fer seen in fer-o and tel, tol in tul-ī, with the ablaut form tl seen in tl-ā-tum, the original form of lātum.
- 2. Compounds of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ad	ad-ferō	ad-ferre	at-tulI	al-lātum	to carry to
au, ab¹	au-ferō	au-ferre	abs-tuli	ab-lätum	to carry away
con	cōn-ferō	con-ferre	con-tuli	col-lātum	to bring together
dis, dī¹	dif-ferō	dif-ferre	dis-tulī	dī-lātum	to carry apart
ex, ē¹	ef-ferō	ef-ferre	ex-tuli	ē-lātum	to carry out
in	īn-ferō	in-ferre	in-tulī	il-lātum	to carry into
ob	of-ferō	of-ferre	ob-tulī	ob-lātum	to bring before
re	re-ferō	re-ferre	re-t-tuli	re-lātum	to carry back
sub	suf-ferō	suf-ferre	sus-tuli	sub-lātum	to suffer

Note. — In form sus-tuli and sub-latum belong to the verb suf-fero, to undertake, to bear, suffer, and they sometimes have this meaning; but they also supply the Perfect and the Perfect Participle of tollo, to take up, raise.

295 .	Volō	velle	voluī	to be willing	
	Nōlō	${f nar o}$ lle	nōluī	to be unwilling	
	Mālō	\mathbf{m} alle	māluI	to prefer	
T					

INDICATIVE

Pres.	volō	nōlō	mālō
	vīs	nōn vīs	māvis
	vult	non vult	māvult

¹ Au and ab are two separate prepositions, but with the same general meaning; dis and di are two forms of one and the same preposition; so also are \mathbf{ex} and \mathbf{e} .

	volumus	nõlumus	mālumus
	vultis	nōn vultis	māvultis
	volunt	nōlunt	mālunt
Imp.	volēb am	nölēbam	mālēbam
Fut.	volam	nōlam	mālam
Perf.	voluī	nōluī	māluī
Plup.	volueram	nõlueram	mālueram
F. P.	voluerō	nõluerõ	māluerō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	velim ¹	nōlim	mālim
Imp.	vellem ²	nöllem	māllem
Perf.	voluerim	nōluerim	māluerim
Plup.	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	nõlī	nõlīte
Fut.	nōlītō	nõlitõte
	nōlītō	nõluntõ

INFINITIVE

Pres.	velle	nõlle	mālle
Perf.	voluisse	nõluisse	māluisse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	voiens	noiens

- 1. The stem of volo is vel, vol, in which o is weakened to u in vult. Vis is from a separate stem, vi.
- 2. Nõlõ is from ne-volõ; mālõ supplanted an earlier formation, mā-volō, from magis-volō.
 - 3. Other forms occur, especially in early Latin,

of volō: volt, voltis; sīs, sūltis, for sī vīs, sī vultis; of nōlō: ne-vīs, ne-volt; nōn velim, nōn vellem; of mālō: mā-volō, mā-volam, mā-velim, mā-veliem.

¹ Velim is inflected like sim, and vellem like essem.

 $^{^2}$ Vellem is from vel-sem, like es-sem; velle from vel-se, like es-se. Here ${\bf s}$ is assimilated to the preceding 1.

296. The regular verb facto, facere, fect, factum, to make, has the following irregular Passive:

Fīō,		fierī,	factus su	m, <i>t</i>	o become, be made		
			Indicat	TIVE			
		SINGUL	AR		PLURAL		
•	Pres.	fīō, fīs	, fit		fiunt		
	Imp.	fiēbam			fīēbāmus		
	Fut.	fīam			fīēmus		
	Perf.	factus	sum		factī sumus		
	Plup.	factus	eram		factī erāmus		
	F. P.	factus	erō		factī erimus		
	Subjunctive						
	Pres.	fīam			fiāmus		
	Imp.	fierem	-t	*	fierēmus		
	Perf.	factus	sim		factī sīmus		
	Plup.	factus	essem		factī essēmus		
			Impera	TIVE			
	Pres.	fī			fite		
	In	FINITIV	C	Pai	RTICIPLE		
	Pres.	fierī					
	Perf.	factum	0000	Perf.	factus		
	Fut.	factum		Ger.	faciendus		
	rut.	ractum	ILI	Ger.	lacienuus		

- 1. The first and second persons plural of the Present Indicative are not found.
- 2. The Imperative forms fi and fite belong to early and late Latin. A rare Infinitive, fiere, occurs in early Latin.
 - 3. For the compounds of facio and fio, see 274.
- 4. Moreover, a few isolated forms of compounds of fio, with prepositions, occur as follows:

Indicative	Subjunctive	I	NFINITIVE
confit, confiunt	cōnfīat, cōnfieret	cōnfierī	to be done
dēfit, dēfīunt, dēfīet	dēfīat	dēfierī	t o be wanting
infit, infiunt			he begins, they begin
	interfiat	interfierī	to be destroyed

297 .	Εō	īre	iī	it	um	t	o go
			Indicative				
	. 81	NGULAR			;	PLURAL	
Pres.	еō	īs	it	īmus		ītis	eunt
Imp.	ībam	ibas	Ibat	ībāmu	8	ībātis	Ibant
Fut.	ībō	ībis	ībit	ībimus	3	ībitis	Ibunt
Perf.	iī	isti	iit	iimus		īstis	iērunt
Plup.	ieram	ierās	ierat	ierām	us	ierātis	ierant
F. P.	ierō	ierľs	ierit	ierimu	ıs	ieritis	ierint
			Subjunctive	C			
Pres.	eam	eās	eat	eāmus	3	eātis	eant
Imp.	īrem	īrēs	īret	īrēmu	8	īrētis	Irent
Perf.	ierim	ierīs	ierit	ierimu	ıs	ieriti s	ierint
Plup.	Issem	issēs	īsset	issēm	ıs	īssētis	issent
	In	FINITIVE			PA	RTICIPLE	
	Pres.	īre		Pres.	iēns	Gen.	euntis
	Perf.	īsse					
	Fut.	itūrum	esse	Fut.	itūrı	າຮ	
	GE	RUND		Sup	INE		
	Gen.	eundī					
	Dat.	eundō					
	Acc.	eund ur	l	Acc.	itun	a	
	Abl.	eundō		Abl.	itū		
			Imperative				
	Pres.	ī			.ite		
	Fut.	ītō			ītōt	9	
		ītō			eun	tō	

- 1. Eō is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine from the weak stem i, and is irregular in several parts of the present system. In the perfect system the regular classical forms are ii, ieram, ierō, etc., as given in the paradigm, but the forms with v, as ivi, iveram, iverō, etc., occur in early and late Latin.
- 2. Observe that ii is regularly contracted into I before s, as Issem, but the uncontracted ii is found in rare instances.
- 3. The stem of eō is the root ei, weak form i. Ei becomes e before ã, ō, and u, as in eam, eāmus, eō, eunt, but in other situations it becomes I,

shortened to i before a vowel or final t, as in Is, Imus, Itis; iimus, ierō, it. The weak stem is seen in i-tum and i-tūrus.

- 4. As an intransitive verb e5 has no regular passive voice, but certain passive forms are used impersonally: itur, there is going; itum est, they have gone; but irī, the Passive Infinitive, is used as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugation: amātum irī, etc.
- 5. Compounds of e5 have the short form in the Perfect System and are conjugated as follows:

ab-eō	abire	abiī	a bitum	to go away
ex-eō	exīre	exiī	exitum	to go out

Note. — A few compounds occasionally have a future in iet, for ibit.

- 6. Transitive Compounds of e5 may be used in the passive voice, as ad-e5, adire, to approach; Passive ad-eor, adiris, aditur, etc. Passive forms are somewhat rare.
- 7. Ambiō (from ambi-eō), ambīre, ambīvī, ambītum, to solicit, is inflected as a regular verb of the Fourth Conjugation, like audiō, though ambībam for ambiēbam occurs.
- 298. Queō, quīre, quīvī, quiī, to be able, and ne-queō, nequīre, nequīvī, ne-quiī, not to be able, are inflected like eō, but they are used chiefly in early writers.
- 1. The forms most frequently used by the best writers are non queo, non queam, non queat, non queant, non quire; nequeunt, nequeamus, nequeant, nequibas, nequibat, nequibat, nequisti, nequiit, nequiere, nequierat, nequierant, nequirem, nequiret, nequire.

Defective Verbs

299. The following verbs lack the Present System:

	Coepī,	Meminī,	Odī,
	I have begun	$oldsymbol{I}$ $remember$	I hate
	In	DICATIVE	
Perf.	coepi	memini	ōdi
Plup.	coeperam	memineram	ōderam
F. P.	coeperō	meminerō	ōderō
	Sui	BJUNCTIVE	
Perf.	coeperim	meminerim	ōderim
Plup.	coepissem	meminissem	ödissem

IMPERATIVE

Sing. mementō Plur. mementōte

Infinitive

- 1. With Passive Infinitives, coepi generally takes the passive form: coeptus sum, eram, etc. Coeptus is passive in sense.
- 2. Meminī and ōdī are Present in sense; hence in the Pluperfect and Future Perfect they have the sense of the Imperfect and Future. Nōvī, I know, Perfect of nōscō, to learn, and cōnsuēvī, I am wont, Perfect of cōnsuēscō, to accustom one's self, are also present in sense.
- **300.** The three following verbs are used chiefly in certain parts of the Present System.

Āiō, I say, I say yes:2

INDICATIVE

āiō āiēbam ⁴ —	ais ⁸ āiēbās —	ait āiēbat ait	— āiēbāmus —	āiēbātis —	āiunt āiēbant —
		Subj	UNCTIVE		
	āiās	āiat	-	_	āiant
		Імри	ERATIVE		
		Pres.	ai (rare)		
		Par	TICIPLE		
		Pres.	āiēns		
		āiēbam 4 āiēbās — — —	āiēbam 4 āiēbās āiēbāt — — ait SUBJ — āiās āiat IMPR Pres. PAR	ālēbam 4 ālēbās alēbat alēbāmus — ait — SUBJUNCTIVE — ālās ālat — IMPERATIVE Pres. al (rare) PARTICIPLE	ālēbam i ālēbās ālēbat ālēbāmus ālēbātis — — ait — — SUBJUNCTIVE — ālās ālat — — IMPERATIVE Pres. al (rare) PARTICIPLE

¹ Osus is active in sense, hating, but is rare, except in compounds.

² In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel i is a consonant; see 12. 2.

⁸ The interrogative form ais-ne is often shortened to ain.

⁴ Albam, albās, etc., occur.

Inquam,	I sa	y, is	used	in	connection	\mathbf{with}	direct	quotations
and is inser	ted a	after	one or	m	ore of the w	ords o	quoted.	

Indic.	Pres.	inquam	inquis	inquit	inquimus	inquitis 1	inquiunt
66	Imp.	-	_	inquiēbat ¹	_		-
66	Fut.		inquiēs	inquiet	_	_	
"	Perf.	inquiī	inquisti	inquit	_	_	_
Imper.	Pres.	inque	Fut.	inquitō			
			Fā	irī, to speak			
Indic.	Pres.	_	_	fātur	_	_	fantur
"	Fut.	fābor		fābitur	_	-	_
* *	Perf.			fātus est	_	_	fātī sunt
44	Plup.	fātus era	m —	fātus erat	_	_	_
Imper.	Pres.	fāre					
Infin.	Pres.	fārī				•	
Part.	Pres.	fāns	_	fantī	fantem		fante
"	Past	fātus					
44	Ger.	fandus					
Gerund	l, Gen.	fandī	Abl.	fandō	Supi	ne, Abl.	fātū

- 1. Fārī is used chiefly in poetry. The compounds have a few forms not found in the simple verb, as af-fāmur, af-fāminī, af-fābar, etc.
 - 301. Certain verbs have only a few special forms.
 - 1. Imperative and Infinitive.

havē	havēte	havētō	havēre 2	hail, to be well
salvē	salvēte ⁸	salvētō	salvēre	hail, to be well
cedō	cette			give me, tell me
apage				away with you

2. Other forms:

ovat	ovāns	he rejoices, rejoicing
quaesō	quaesumus	I entreat, we entreat

Impersonal Verbs

302. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English impersonal verbs with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it is proper. They are conjugated like

¹ Inquitis is rare. Inquibat for inquiëbat occurs.

² Also written avē, avēte; avētō, avēre.

⁸ The Future salvēbis is also used for the Imperative.

other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

- 1. The subject, when expressed, is generally an Infinitive or a clause: hoc fier oportet, that this should be done is proper.
 - 2. The following verbs are generally impersonal:

ningit	ningere	ninxit	it snows
pluit	pluere	pluit	it rains
tonat	tonāre	tonāvit	it thunders
decet	decēre	decuit	it is becoming
licet	licēre	licuit, licitum est	it is lawful
miseret 1	miserēre	miseritum est	it excites pity
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	it is proper
paenitet ¹	paenitēre	paenituit	it causes regret
piget	pigēre	piguit	it grieves
pudet	pudēre	puduit, puditum est	it puts to shame
rēfert	rēferre	rēttulit	it concerns
taedet	taedēre	taeduit, taesum est	it disgusts

3. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense:

From licet: licens, free; licitus, allowed.

From paenitet: paenitens, penitent; paenitendus, to be repented of.

From pudet: pudens, modest: pudendus, shameful.

- 4. Gerunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: paenitendum, pudendō.
- 5. A few verbs, generally personal, admit the impersonal construction in certain senses:

accēdit, it is added	accidit, it happens	appāret, it is clear
constat, it is agreed	praestat, it is better	restat, it remains
contingit, it happens	dēlectat, it delights	dolet, it grieves
ēvenit, it happens	interest, it interests	iuvat, it delights
patet, it is plain	placet, it pleases	

- 6. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter: mihi creditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; creditum est, it was believed; curritur, there is running, people run; pūgnātur, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; vīvitur, we, you, they live.
- 7. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (237) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter: mihi scribendum est, I must write.

¹ Mē miseret, I pity; mē paenitet, I repent.

PARTICLES

303. The Latin has four parts of speech, sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS

- **304.** The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.
 - 305. Adverbs may be divided into three general classes:
- 1. Adverbs which were originally the case forms of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
- Adverbs formed by means of suffixes no longer used in the regular declensions.
 - 3. Adverbs formed by the union of prepositions with case forms.
- 306. Many adverbs were originally Accusatives, both in form and in meaning.
 - 1. Accusatives of Nouns: vicem, in turn; partim, partly.
- 2. Here perhaps may be mentioned adverbs in tim and sim, probably formed originally from verbal nouns no longer in use: statim, steadily; raptim, hastily; contemptim, contemptuously; furtim, stealthily. These adverbs are sometimes explained as Accusatives, and sometimes as Instrumental cases.
- 3. Accusatives of Adjectives and Pronouns: multum, multa, much; cēterum, cētera, as to the rest; vērum, truly; facile, easily; saepius, oftener; bifāriam = bifāriam partem, in two parts; aliās = aliās vicēs, otherwise; tam, so much; quam, as much.
 - 307. Many adverbs were originally Ablatives.²
- Ablatives of Nouns: forte, by chance; füre, rightly; numero, exactly;
 sponte, willingly.

² The term Ablative, as applied in Latin, includes not only the Ablative proper, but all forms originally Instrumental, and such Locatives as are not easily recognized.

¹ Thus statim may be formed from statis, which is no longer in use, because supplanted by statio. Subsequently it seems to have been associated with the verb stare, and perhaps some adverbs in tim were formed from verbs by analogy. But some adverbs in tim and sim are formed from adjectives: singulatim, one by one. In time, doubtless, these endings came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were used in forming new adverbs.

ADVERBS 143

- 2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles: dextrā, on the right; extrā, on the outside; rārō, rarely; doctē, learnedly; doctissimē, most learnedly; māximē, especially; auspicātō, after taking the auspices; cōnsultō, after deliberating.
- 3. Ablatives of Pronouns: eā, there, in that way; hāc, here, in this way; eādem, in the same way.
- 4. A few Pronominal Adverbs denote direction toward a place: eō, to that place; hōc, hūc, to this place; illō, illō-c, to that place; istō, istō-c, to your place. These adverbs are explained as Instrumental Ablatives.
- 5. Here may be mentioned a few adverbs in im, in-c: illim, illin-c, from that place; interim, meanwhile; often with de: in-de, thence; proin-de, hence. These adverbs may be Instrumental Ablatives.
- 308. Some Adverbs were originally Locatives, denoting the Place or Time in which anything is done.
- 1. Locatives of Nouns and Adjectives in I or E: heri, yesterday; temperi, in time; vesperi, in the evening; peregri, or peregre, in a foreign land.
- 2. Locatives of Pronouns: hīo, here; illīo, istīc, there; ibī, there; ubī, where; sīc, in this way, thus.
- 309. Adverbs in tus and ter.²—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings tus and ter, which are no longer used as case endings in the regular declensions: fundi-tus, from the foundation; rādīci-tus, from the roots, utterly; dīvīni-tus, by divine appointment, divinely; forti-ter, bravely; prūden-ter, prudently.
- 1. The stem vowel before tus and ter becomes i, and consonant stems assume i, but ti is lost by dissimilation (56) before ter: prüden-ti-ter, prüden-ter.
- 310. Some adverbs are formed by the union of case forms with prepositions, even with prepositions with which they are not otherwise used: ad-modum, to the full measure, fully; ex-templo, immediately; ant-ea, before, before that; inter-ea, in the meantime; post-ea, afterward; tantis-per, for so long a time.
- 1. A very few adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose words have become united in writing, as scilicet, from scire licet, certainly; lit. it is permitted to know; videlicet, from videre licet, clearly; forsitan, from fors sit an, perhaps.
- 311. Comparison. Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the

¹ Here the Locative ending is i: hi-c, illi-c.

² Seen also in in-tus, within; in-ter, in the midst; sub-tus, sub-ter, below.

Accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into $\mathbf{8}:\mathbf{1}$

altus	altior	altissimus	lofty
altē	altius	${f altissim}$ ē	loftily

1. When the adjective is compared with magis and māximē, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius	magis ēgregius	māximē ēgregius	excellent
ēgregiē	magis ēgregiē	māximē ēgregiē	excellently

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus	\mathbf{melior}	optimus	good
bene	melius	optimē	well

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	dēterior	dēterrimus	worse
_	dēterius	dēterrimē	worse
novus		novissimus	new
novē	_	${f novissimar e}$	newly

4. A few adverbs not derived from adjectives are compared:

diū	diūtius	diūtissimē	for a long time
saepe	saepius	saepissimē	often
satis	satius	-	<i>sufficiently</i>
nüper		nūperrimē	recently

- 5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (160), are not compared: hic, here; nunc, now; vulgāriter, commonly.
- 6. Superlatives in ō or um are used in a few adverbs: prīmō, prīmum, potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS

- 312. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other: in Italia esse, to be in Italy; ante mē, before me.
 - 1. Prepositions were originally adverbs.2
 - 2. For Prepositions and their uses, see 420, 490.
 - 3. For the form and meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see 374.
- 313. Inseparable Prepositions, so called because they are used only in composition, are the following:

¹ See 307, 2.

² But many adverbs, it will be remembered, are in origin case forms.

ambi, amb, around, about au, away, from dis, di, asunder in, not, unpor, toward, forth red, re, back sēd, sē, aside, apart vē, not, without

1. For the form and meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see 375.

CONJUNCTIONS

- 314. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Coördinate or Subordinate.
 - 1. Coordinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptās-que, labor and pleasure.

Carthaginem cepit ac 1 diruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Haec dum¹ colligunt, effügit, while they collected these things, he escaped.

Note. - For the use of subordinate conjunctions, see 568, 574.

- 315. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise:
- 1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting Union:

Et, que, atque, ac, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque . . . neque, nec . . . nec, neque . . . nec, neither . . . nor.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting Separation:

Aut, vel, ve, sive (seu), or; aut . . . aut, vel . . . vel, either . . . or; sive . . . sive, either . . . or.

Note. — Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum . . . an. whether . . . or; an, or; annon, necne, or not; see 380.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting Opposition:

Sed, 4 autem, vērum, vērō, in truth, but; at, but, on the contrary; atqui, rather; cēterum, but still, moreover; 5 tamen, yet.

¹ Here que connects two Nominatives, ac two Indicatives, which are entirely coördinate, but dum connects the subordinate clause, haec . . . colligunt, with the principal clause, effügit, he escaped while they collected these things.

²Copulative conjunctions are et and que with their compounds: et-iam, atque, quo-que, ne-que. Ac is a shortened form of at-que; nec of ne-que.

⁸ Disjunctives are aut, vel, and ve with their compounds. Vel is the Imperative of volo, lit. choose.

⁴ Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case forms, chiefly from pronominal stems, especially from the stems of qui, quae, quod.

⁵ Lit. as to the rest.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting Inference:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore.

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.1

316. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise:

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting Time:

Quando, quom, 2 cum, when; ut, ubi, as, when; cum primum, ut primum, ubi primum, simul, simulac, simul ac, simul atque, simul-atque, as soon as; dum, donec, quoad, quamdiü, while, until, as long as; antequam, priusquam, before; posteāquam, after.

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting Comparison:

Ut, uti, sicut, as, so as; velut, just as; praeut, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as; tanquam, quasi, ut si, velut si, as if.

- 3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting Condition:
- SI, if; si non, nisi, nī, if not; sin, but if; si quidem or si-quidem, if indeed; si modo, dum, modo, dummodo, if only, provided.
- 4. Adversative and Concessive Conjunctions, denoting Opposition and Concession:

Quamquam, licet, cum, although; etsi, tametsi, etiamsi, even if; quamvis, quantumvis, quantumlibet, however much, although; ut, grant that; nē, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting Purpose or End:

Ut, utī, that, in order that; nē, nēve (neu), that not; quō, that; quōminus, quīn, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting Consequence or Result:

Ut, so that; ut non, so that not.

4

¹ But most causal conjunctions are subordinate; see 316, 7.

² Quom, the original form from which cum was developed, occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.

⁸ Probably a Locative.

⁴ Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; vis, you wish, in quam-vis and quantum-vis, as much as you wish, and libet, it pleases, in quantum-libet, as much as it pleases, are also verbs.

⁵ Quōminus = quō-minus, by which less; quin = quī-ne, by which not, originally interrogative, how not?

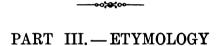
7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause:

Quia, quod, quoniam, quando, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom), since; quandoquidem, si quidem or siquidem, utpote, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, in dependent or indirect questions: 8 Ne, nonne, num, utrum, an, whether; an non, necne, or not.

INTERJECTIONS

- 317. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address.⁴ They may express
 - 1. Astonishment: 5, hem, ehem, attat, babae.
 - 2. Joy: iō, euhoe, euge, ēia, ō, papae.
 - 3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, ēheu, ohē, āh, au, prō.
 - 4. Disgust: aha, phy, apage.
 - 5. Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
 - 6. Praise: eu, euge, ēia, hēia,



- 318. Words in our family of languages were originally formed by the union of primitive elements called Roots.
- 319. In the formation of words in an inflected language, we distinguish Inflection, Derivation, and Composition; but inflection and derivation are both the result of original composition. The suffixes of inflection and derivation are the worn and mutilated remains of original members of compound words.

¹ From quom-iam, when now.

² Lit. if indeed.

⁸ These are sometimes classed as adverbs. In some of their uses they are plainly conjunctions, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of adverbs. As a matter of convenience they may be called Interrogative Particles; see 378.

⁴ Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as age, come, apage, begone, or mutilated sentences or clauses: meherculēs, mehercule, etc., = mē Herculēs iuvet, may Hercules protect me; mēdius fidius, may the true God help me.

INFLECTION AND DERIVATION

- 320. Inflection forms Cases, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons by adding appropriate suffixes to stems: rēg-is, rēg-em, rēg-ēs, rēg-ibus; sta-t, sta-nt, stā-mus, stā-tis.
- 1. In Latin, a stem which cannot be resolved into more primitive elements is also a root. Thus stā, the stem of stā-mus, is a root. Moreover, most roots have a strong form and a weak form. Thus stā in stā-s, stā-mus, stā-tis is the strong form, and sta in sta-tim, sta-tus is the weak form of the same root.
- 321. Derivation forms new stems by adding formative suffixes to other stems or to roots. Thus from the root sta, it forms the stem sta-bill by adding the suffix bill, and from this again it forms the new stem sta-bill-tāt by adding the suffix tāt.
- 322. Etymologically words may be divided into groups, each group being derived from one common root. Some of these groups are very large. Thus from the two forms of the single root sta, sta, to stand, are derived
- 1. All the forms which make up the conjugation of the verb stō, stāre, stetī, statum, to stand.
 - 2. All the forms of the verb sisto, sistere, stiti, statum, to place.
 - 3. Many other forms, including nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.
- 323. Stems, the basis of all inflection, may be divided into three classes, as follows:
 - 1. Root Stems, identical with roots.
- 2. Primary Stems, formed either from roots or from the stems of verbs by means of suffixes.
 - 3. Secondary Stems, formed from primary stems by means of suffixes.
 - **324**. Words formed by inflection are called
- 1. Root Words or Primitive Words, if formed from root stems: duc-is, of a leader, root stem duc; es-tis, you are, root stem es.
- 2. Primary Derivatives, if formed from primary stems: fac-tō-rum, of deeds, from primary stem fac-to, from the root fac, seen in the verb fac-tō.
- 3. Secondary Derivatives, if formed from secondary stems: sta-bili-tāt-is, of stead-fast-ness, from the secondary stem sta-bili-tāt, from the primary stem sta-bili, from the weak root sta.

- 325. In the language inherited by the Romans, roots, stems, and suffixes sometimes appear with varying quantity, and even with different yowels in different words:
- 1. With varying quantity: root reg in reg-ere, but reg in rex; leg in leg-ere, but leg in lex.
- 2. With different vowels, with or without varying quantity: root teg in teg-ere, but tog in tog-a; da in da-mus, da-tus, but do in do-num.
- 326. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, while in the Latin they have mostly disappeared, as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.
 - 1. In classical Latin the suffix ter, tor, in its several forms,

	tr	ter	tēr	tor	tör
in	pa-tr-is	pa-ter	crā-tēr	vic-tor	vic-tōr-is
is t	he best illus	tration of this vow	el gradation	, called also Ablaut.	

- 2. This suffix is an illustration of what is called the E-Series of vowel gradation or ablaut, though the forms ter and tor were not inherited, but were shortened by the Latin from ter and tor. The form tr, in which the vowel has disappeared, is said to have weak grade and is called a weak form, while ter, ter, tor, tor are said to have strong grade and are called strong forms. Moreover, ter and tor are sometimes distinguished from ter and tor as the stronger or extended forms.
- 3. In the examples given above (325) the roots reg, reg; leg, leg; teg, tog, all belong to the E-Series, but the root which appears as da in da-mus, da-tus, and as do in do-num, belongs to the O-Series.

I. ROOT WORDS—FORMED FROM ROOTS BY INFLECTION

327. The following are examples of Root Words:

1. From Roots of the Weak Grade or Weak Form

Root duc:	duc-is, of a leader	duc-e	duc-ibus
đa:	da-re, to give	da-mus	da-tis
s :	s-um, Iam	s-umus	s-ītis

2. From Roots of the Strong Grade or Strong Form

Root es:	es-se, to be	es-t	es-tis
stā :	stā-s, you stand	stā-mus	stā-tis
rēg:	rēg-is, of the king	rēg-e	rēg-ibus

II. PRIMARY DERIVATIVES

328. From the stems of verbs are formed Participles and Verbal Adjectives and Nouns with the following suffixes:

Nom. ns tus, a, um tus tūrus, a, um ndus, a, um Stem nt, nti to, tā tu tūro, tūrā ndo, ndā

- 1. With the suffix ns are formed Present Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: amā-ns, ama-nt-is, loving; innocē-ns, innocent; adulescē-ns, a youth.
- 2. With the suffix tus, a, um, sometimes sus, a, um, are formed Perfect Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: amā-tus, loved; al-tus, tall, from al-ere, to nourish; legā-tus, envoy, from legā-re, to commission; fos-sa (from fod-ta), trench, from fod-ere, to dig.

Note 1. — The suffix tus, a, um is also used in forming Secondary Derivatives; see 343.

Note 2. — The suffix nus, a, um is sometimes used in the sense of tus, a, um: plē-nus, full, from plē-re, to fill; dō-num, gift, from dō, da-re, to give.

3. With the suffix tus, stem tu, are formed Supines and other Verbal Nouns: amā-tum, amā-tū; audī-tus, act of hearing, from audī-re; exercitus, training, army, trained men, from exercē-re, to train.

Note. — For the use of a-tus in forming Secondary Derivatives, see 344.

- 4. With the suffix tūrus, a, um are formed Future Active Participles, and Verbal Nouns in tūra: amā-tūrus; cul-tūra, a cultivating, from col-ere, to cultivate; scrīp-tūra, writing, written document, from scrīb-ere, to write.
- 5. With the suffix ndus, a, um, are formed Gerundives, Gerunds, and Gerundive Adjectives in undus, bundus, and cundus with the general meaning of participles, though they often denote a permanent characteristic: ama-ndus, ama-ndī, ama-ndō; sec-undus, following, from sequ-I, to follow; vītā-bundus, avoiding, from vītā-re, to avoid; fā-cundus, eloquent, from fā-rī, to speak.

Note. — The suffix dus has nearly the same meaning as undus, bun-dus, and cun-dus: timi-dus, timid, from time-re, to fear.

329. Important Verbal Adjectives denoting Capability, Adaptation, generally passive but sometimes active, are formed with the suffixes

illis and bills. stems, ill and bill:

fac-ilis, facile, easy, from fac-ere, to make ūt-ilis, useful, ūt-I. to use " amā-bilis. lovable. amā-re, to love laudā-bilis. praiseworthy, laudā-re. to praise 1. With these suffixes adjectives are often derived from Perfect Participles:

duct-ilis,	ductile,	from	duct-us,	led, drawn out
miss-ilis,	capable of being sent,	"	miss-us,	sent
umbrāt-ilis,	living in the shade,	"	umbrāt-us,	sh aded
vīs-i-bilis,	visible,	44	vīs-us,	seen

- 2. Some of these adjectives occasionally become nouns: miss-ile, a missile, from mitt-ere, to send.
- 3. From such examples as duc-t-ilis, mis-s-ilis, and umbr-āt-ilis seem to have been derived the suffixes tilis, silis, and ātilis, used in forming adjectives from nouns; see 352.
- 4. The stems ill and bill of ills and bills are derived from the stems ulo and bulo of ulus and bulum; see 331, 1, 335.
- 330. Verbal Adjectives with the general meaning of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	āx	icus		cus	ücus	ius
Stem	āc, āci	ico	10	00	ūco	io:
aud-āx,	daring,		from	aud-ēre,	to dare	
loqu-āx,	loquacious	3,	"	loqu-ī,	to talk	
med-icus,	healing, n	redical,	"	med-ērī,	to heal	
am-Icus,	loving, fri	endly,	"	am-āre,	to love	
cad-ūcus,	falling, fr	ail,	44	cad-ere,	to fall	
exim-ius,	select, cho	ice,	"	exim-ere,	to selec	t out

- 1. These suffixes are comparatively rare, except āx, which is a reduced form of ācus. It often denotes a faulty inclination. The suffixes ā-cus, i-cus, i-cus, and ū-cus are only different forms of a single suffix, produced by adding cus, to the stem-vowels ā, i, ī, and ū.
- A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: med-icus, a physician; am-Icus, a friend.
- 331. Verbal Adjectives having in general a meaning kindred to that of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom. Stem	ulus ulo	uus uo	vus	īvus īvo :
Биси	uio	uo	••	-110.
crēd-ulus,	credulous,	from	crēd-ere,	to believ e
noc-uus,	hurtful,	66	noc-ēre,	to hur t
ar-vus,	plowed	"	ar-āre,	to plow
cad-ivus,	falling,	44	cad-ere.	to fall

- 1. The suffix ulus generally denotes a faulty tendency. In verbal adjectives it often becomes ilis: ag-ilis, agile; see 329; uus, vus, and ī-vus are only different forms of a single suffix.
- 2. The suffix **Ivus** is often added to the stem of Perfect Participles, apparently making a new suffix, **t-īvus**: **cap-t-īvus**, *captive*, from cap-ere, cap-to, cap-t, to take; **āc-t-īvus**, active, from ag-ere, **āc-t**o, **āc-t**, to act.
- 3. A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: ar-vum, plowed land, from ar-āre, to plow; cap-t-īvus, a captive.
- 4. The suffix **īvus**, **t-īvus** is also used in forming secondary derivatives; see 350.

Verbal Nouns

- 332. Verbal nouns partake largely of the meaning of the verbs from which they are derived. They may be classified as follows:
 - 1. Verbal nouns denoting Action or its Result; see 333.
 - 2. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action; see 334.
- 3. Verbal nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action; see 335.

Action or Its Result

333. Verbal nouns denoting Action in the abstract, but often becoming concrete, are formed with the suffixes

Nom. Stem	iō¹ iōn	tiō tiōn	or ōr	us os,	es		iēs iē	ium io :
leg-iō,		ying, legior		•		•		levy
audī-tiō.		ring, a rep	•	,		audi-re,		hear
vī-siō,2		ing, a sigh			44	vid-ēre,	to	see
tim-or,	fear,		•		66	tim-ēre,	to	fear
gen-us,	birth	,			"	gen in gign-e	re, to	bear .
frīgus,	cold,				"	frig-ere,	-	be cold
sēd ēs,	seat,				"	sed-ēre,	to	sit
fac-iēs,	face,				"	fac-ere,	to	make
gaud-ium,	joy,				"	gaud-ēre,	to	rejoice

1. Most of these suffixes generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but ēs, iēs, and ium sometimes designate the result of the action or the means employed: aedific-ium, edifice, from aedific-āre, to build; nūb-ēs, cloud, from nūb-ere, to veil.

¹ The suffix io is compounded of i and on; tio of ti and on.

² Vī-siō is from vid-tiō; see 52, 1.

- 2. Here belongs the Latin Infinitive in ere, which is the Locative of a verbal noun, like genus, gen-eris, gen-ere. Observe that the Ablative ending ere, which includes the Locative meaning, is the same as that of the Infinitive.
 - 3. For the suffixes tus and tura, see 328, 3 and 4.

Agent or Doer

334. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the suffixes

Nom. Stem	tor ter, masculine tōr ter, tr		ine	tr-īx, feminine tr-īc:	
vēnā-tor, vēnā-tr-īx,	hun-ter,¹ hun-tr-ess,¹	}	from	vēnā-rī,	to hunt
gubernā-tor, gubernā-tr-īx,	direc-tor, direc-tr-ess,	}	"	gubernā-re,	to steer, direct
audi-tor,	hearer,		"	audī-re,	to hear
tōn-sor,² tōns-trīx,	barber, female barbe	_{er,} }	"	tond-ere,	to clip, shave

- 1. The few nouns in Latin formed with the suffixes ter, tr, which, like tor, originally denoted the Agent, have become Names of Kindred: pa-ter, pa-tr-is, father; mā-ter, mā-tr-is, mother; frā-ter, frā-tr-is, brother.
- The suffix tr in pa-tr-is, ter in pa-ter, tor in vic-tor, and tor in vic-tor-is, are only different forms of the same suffix. For vowel gradation or ablaut, as illustrated in these forms, see 21, 326, 1.
- 3. The feminine suffix trīx for tr-ics is an extension of tr, the weak form of tor, by the addition of īc-s, of which ī is the inherited feminine suffix and s the Nominative suffix.
- 4. The suffix tor, though originally a primary suffix, is sometimes used to form denominatives: viā-tor, a traveler, from via, a way; sen-ā-tor, a senator, from sen-ex, an old man.
- 5. The suffix tor, sor, is often extended to tor-ius, sor-ius by the addition of ius: see 350. 2.
- 6. A few nouns in a, ō (Gen. ōn-is), us, and ulus have a meaning kindred to that of Agent or Doer: scrīb-a, a writer, from scrīb-ere, to write; err-ō, err-ōn-is, a wanderer, from err-āre, to wander; coqu-us, a cook, from coqu-ere, to cook; leg-ulus, a collector, from leg-ere, to collect.

¹ Observe that ter and tor in hun-ter and direc-tor are used, as in Latin, to denote the agent or doer, and that in the feminine forms hun-tr-ess and direc-tr-ess they both take the weak form tr, as in the Latin vēnā-tr-ix.

² Ton-sor is for tond-tor, dt changed to s, but tons-trix is for tond-trix, dt changed to st before r; see 52, 1.

Means and Instrument

335. Nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action, sometimes its Place or Result, are formed with the suffixes

trum ulum	s-trun ula	_	clum brum	cu br	lum a	cula bulum		crum bula :²
árā-trum,	pl	ow,		from	arā-re,		to	plow
rōs-trum,	be	ak,		"	rōd-ere,		to	gnaw
mōn-s-trui	n,1 pr	odigy,		66	mon-ēre,	1	to	admoni sh
peri-clum,	> <i>u</i> r	ial, test,	peril,	"	obsolete	perī-re,	to	try, test
indū-cula,	tu	nic,		"	indu-ere	,	to	clothe with
simulā-cru	m, <i>in</i>	rage,		66	simulā-re	э,	to	represent
teg-ulum, teg-ula,	} co	vering,	tile, rooj	f, "	teg-ere,		to	cover
dēlū-brum	, sh	rine,		"	dēlu-ere,		to	cleanse
dolā-bra,	ах	c, matto	ck,	44	dolā-re,		to	hero, cut
sta-bulum,	, st	all,		44	stā-re,		to	stand
fā-bula,	st.	ory, tale	,	"	fā-rī,		to	speak, tell

336. Many verbal nouns denoting the Means of an action, or its involuntary Subject or Object, and sometimes the Act itself or its Result, are formed with the suffixes

men	mentum	mō (stem mōn)) mõnium		mōnia :	
flū-men,		stream,4	from	flu-ere,	to flow	
ag-men,		army on the march,4	"	ag-ere,	to lead	
ōrnā-me	ntum,	ornament,	"	ōrnā-re,	to adorn	
docu-me	ntum, ⁵	documentary proof,	"	doc-ēre,	to teach	
ser-mō, s	ser-mōn-is,	connected discourse,	"	ser-ere,	to connect	
ali-mōni ali-mōni	, ,	nourishment,	66	ale-re,5	to nourish	

¹ The suffix s-trum may have derived its s from such words as ca-s-trum, rā-s-trum, and rō-s-trum, in which s belongs to the root or stem.

² Cula, ula, bra, and bula differ from the corresponding forms in um only in gender; clum, culum, and crum are only different forms of a single suffix, as are also brum and bulum.

⁸ In Latin the form culum has almost entirely displaced the older form clum.
4 Flürmen stream that which flows: accomen grows on the march that

⁴ Flü-men, stream, that which flows; ag-men, army on the march, that which is led.

⁵ The u in documentum, the i in ali-monia, and the e in ale-re are only different forms of the thematic vowel.

- 1. But the suffixes **monium** and **monia**, though originally used only in forming verbal nouns, were subsequently employed with great freedom in forming nouns from adjectives, or other nouns; see **344**, **345**.
- 2. In early Latin men was a favorite suffix for the formation of verbal nouns, but it was subsequently extended to men-tum by the addition of tum; mon, the strong-grade form of men, was also extended to mon-ia and mon-ium, by adding ia and ium.

337. A few verbal nouns are formed with the suffixes

d -ō ¹	g-ō	stems d-	ōn	d-in	g-ön	g-in :
torpē-dō, cupī-dō,	numbness, desire,		torpē-	re, n cupi-vi,		e numb esired
vorā-gō,	whirl pool,	"	vorā-r	e,	to s	wallow up
orī-gō,	a beginning,	44	orī-rī,		to r	ise, begin

338. Nouns having a great variety of meaning, as Action, its Result or Place, Means or Instrument, etc., are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the simple suffixes

a	us,	\mathbf{um}	us		stems ā	0	\mathbf{u} :
fug-a,		a fleein	g, flight,	from	fug in fug-ere,	to flee	
tog-a,		gown,	toga,	"	tog, teg, in teg-ere,	to cover	•
lūd-us,		game,	play,	44	l ūd in lūd-ere,	to play	
iug-um,		yoke,		"	iug in iung-ere,	to join t	ogether
ac-us,		needle,		46	ac in ac-uere,	to shar	pen

1. For nouns in a and us denoting the Agent or Doer, see 334, 6.

III. SECONDARY DERIVATIVES—NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

- 339. Secondary derivatives, nouns and adjectives, may be classified as follows:
 - 1. Diminutives; see 340.
 - 2. Patronymics, or Names of Descent; see 342.
 - 3. Designations of Place; see 343.
 - 4. Nouns denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic; see 344.
 - 5. Adjectives denoting Fullness or Supply; see 346.
 - 6. Adjectives denoting Material; see 347.
 - 7. Adjectives denoting Characteristic or Possession; see 348.

 $^{^1\,\}text{The suffix do}$ may have derived its d from words like card-o in which d belongs to the root.

Diminutives - Nouns and Adjectives

340. Diminutives of Nouns and Adjectives are generally formed with the following suffixes:

lus, la, lum	ulus, ula, ulum	ulus, ula, ulum		
fīlio-lus,	little son,	from	fīlius,	son
fīlio-la,	little daughter,	"	fīlia,	daughte r
ātrio-lum,	small hall,	"	ātrium,	hall
hortu-lus,	small garden,	"	hortus,	garde n
oppidu-lum,	small town,	"	oppidum,	town
rēg-ulus,	petty king,	"	rēx,	king
capit-ulum,	small head,	"	caput,	head
flōs-culus,	small flower,	"	flōs,	flower
diē-cula,	little day, little while,	"	diēs,	day
mūnus-culum,	small present,	66	mūnus,	present
agel-lus,1	small field,	"	ager,	field
libel-lus,	small book,	"	liber,	book
vīl-lum,²	a little wine,	"	vinum,	wine
aureo-lus, a, um,	somewhat golden,	"	aureus,	golden
longu-lus, a, um,	rather long,	"	longus,	long
pauper-culus, a, um,	rather poor,	"	pauper,	poor
longius-culus, a, um,8	rather too long,	"	longius,	too long
misel-lus, a, um,	$somewhat\ unfortunate$, "	miser,	unfortunate

- 1. Lus, la, lum are appended to a- and o-stems; ulus, ula, ulum to dental and guttural stems; culus, cula, culum to e-, i-, and u-stems and to liquid and s-stems; see examples.
- 2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem vowels **ā** and **o** take the form of **o** after **e** or **i**, and the form of **u** in other situations: filio-lus, filio-la, hortu-lus.
- 3. Before culus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, a little verse; homun-culus, a small man. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula, though probably from an old stem in on: av-unculus, maternal uncle, from avus, grandfather.
- 4. In Latin the diminutive suffix was originally lus, la, lum, from which was developed the form u-lus, u-la, u-lum by including as a part of the suffix the u in such words as hort-u-lus, oppid-u-lum, where it represents the

¹ Agel-lus is from agr(o)-lo-s, which became agr-lo-s, ager-lo-s, and finally agel-lus.

² Vil-lum is from vin(o)-lo-m, which became vin-lom and then vil-lum.

⁸ The suffix cu-lus is often thus attached to the neuter of comparatives.

stem vowel of the primitive; cu-lus was produced by adding the diminutive lus to the suffix co: co-lus, cu-lus.

- 5. A few diminutives are formed with the suffixes io, c-io: 1 pūs-io, pūs-ion-is, a little boy, from pūsus, boy; homun-cio, homun-cion-is, a little man, from homo, man.
- 341. Diminutive nouns in their true and proper signification represent objects simply as small, but they are often so used as to take on secondary meanings. Thus they sometimes become
- 1. Terms of Endearment. Thus filiola may mean either little daughter or my dear little daughter.
- 2. Expressions of Sympathy or Regard. Thus homunculus may mean either a small man or a poor unhappy man.
- 3. Expressions of Contempt. Thus canicula may mean either a small dog or a contemptible little cur.

Patronymics

342. The Latin Patronymics, or Names of Descent, were borrowed from the Greek. The common patronymic ending was developed for metrical reasons in two forms, as follows:

Nom.	idēs	iadēs, masculine	is	ias, feminine
Stem	idā	iadā	iđ	iad

Tantal-ides, son or descendant of Tantal-us
Thest-iades, son or descendant of Thest-ius
Laert-iades, son of Laert-es, viz. Ulysses
Tantal-is, daughter or descendant of Tantal-us
Thest-ias, daughter or descendant of Thest-ius

- 1. In these examples observe that ides and is are used after a short syllable and iades and ias after a long syllable.
- By the union of idēs with a preceding vowel was developed the ending idēs: Thēs-idēs, son or descendant of Thes-eus.
- By the loss of i in iadēs was formed the ending adēs: Aene-adēs, son or descendant of Aene-as.
- 4. Nouns in eus generally form feminine patronymics in eis or ine; nouns in us sometimes form them in ine, and nouns in ius in ione: Ner-eis or Ner-ine, daughter of Ner-eus; Neptūn-ine, daughter or descendant of Neptune; Acris-ione, daughter of Acris-ius.

¹ The suffix ci-ō is compounded of the two diminutive suffixes co and iō, a formation quite analogous to that of cu-lus.

343. Designations of Place, where trees and plants flourish, are often formed with the suffixes turn and ē-turn:

virgul-tum,	thicket,	from virgul-a,	bus h
salic-tum,	thicket of willows,	" salic-s ($cs = x$)	, willow
pīn-ē-tum,	pine forest,	" pin-us,	pine tree
ros-ē-tum,	garden of roses,	" ros-a,	rose bush

1. The suffix tum is the neuter of the participial suffix tus applied to nouns; see 328, 2; thus virgul-tum is the neuter of the adjective virgul-tus, used as a substantive; 5-tum is another form of the same suffix. The 5 was probably developed in such words as ol-5-tum, an olive garden, from ol-5-re, from which it derives its 5. Thus ros-5-tum means literally a place furnished with roses.

344. Derivatives denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic are formed from nouns with the suffixes

Nom. ium Stem io	mõnium mõnio	tās tāt	tūs tūt	tūdō tūdin	ātus ātu :
magister-ium, testi-mōnium, patr-i-mōnium, cīvi-tās, auctōr-i-tās, ¹ servi-tūs, ² servi-tūdō, ²	citizenship, authority, servitude, servitude,	" " "	magister, testi-s, patr-is, cīvi-s, auctor, servu-s, servu-s,	wi of cit ar se	aster itness a father itzen uthor rvant rvant
consul-ātus	consulship,	"	cōnsul,	co	nsul

- 1. Derivatives in ium, tūs, and ātus sometimes become collective nouns: collēgium, a body of colleagues, from collēga, a colleague; iuventūs, youth, young persons; sen-ātus, senate, an assembly of old men. Many derivatives in tās are abstract nouns; see 345.
- 2. The final vowel of the stem disappears before ium but assumes the form of i before the other suffixes. Consonant stems sometimes assume i in imitation of vowel stems.
- 3. The suffixes ium, tās, and tūs were all inherited; tūdō is closely related to tūs; ā-tus is the ending of nouns in tus derived from ā-verbs, as seen in ōrn-ā-tus. For mōnium, see 336, 2.
- 4. The endings āgō and īgō occur in a few words: vir-āgō, a masculine maiden, from vir; rōb-īgō, rust, from rōb-us, red.

¹ Observe that patr-i-monium and auctor-i-tas assume i in imitation of test-i-monium and civ-i-tas in which the i belongs to the stem.

 $^{^2\,\}mathrm{Observe}$ that the stem vowel o of serv-us becomes i in serv-i-tūs and serv-i-tūdō.

345. Many Abstract Nouns are formed from adjectives, and a few from nouns, with the suffixes

ia	iēs	tia	tiēs	t	ās	tūdō	m	ōnia :
audā	c-ia,	boldnes	18,	from	audāx,		bold	
sapie	nt-ia,	wisdom	,	66	sapiēns,		wise	
victō	r-ia,	victory	,	"	victor,		conquer	o r
	ar-ia, ar-iēs, }	barbar	ism,	"	barbar-ı	ıs,	foreign,	barbaro us
amic	i-tia,	friends	hip,	"	amīcu-s	,	friendly	friend
molli molli	-tia, -tiēs, }	softnes	s,	"	molli-s,		soft	
boni-	tās,	goodne	88,	"	bonu-s,		good	
liber	tās,	freedor	n,	66	līber,		free	
pie-t	ās,	filial p	iety,	"	pie in pi	u-s,	dutiful,	piou s
fīrmi fīrmi	-tās, -tūdo, }	firmnes	18,	"	fīrmu-s,		steadfas	t, firm
ācri-	mōnia,	sharpn	ess,	"	ācri-s,		sharp	

- The suffixes ia, iē-s, were inherited; t-ia, t-iēs were formed by adding ia, iēs to t-stems, as sapient-ia, sapien-tia.
- 2. The stem vowel o disappears before ia, iōs; is changed to i before tia, tiōs, and generally before the other suffixes, but it sometimes disappears, as in līber-tās; after i it retains its ablaut form e, as in pie-tās.

Adjectives from the Stems of Nouns

346. Fullness. — Adjectives denoting Fullness, Abundance, or Supply are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes

ōsus	lēns	lentus	tus	ā-tus	ī-tus	ū-tus:
anim-ōs	us,	full of courage	, from	anim-us,	coura	ge
ann-ōsu	s,	full of years,	"	ann-us,	year	
frūctu-č	isus,	fruitful,	"	frūctu-s,	fruit	
pesti-lër pesti-ler	, (pestilential,	"	pesti-s,	pest	
vino-len	itus,	full of wine,	"	vinu-m,	wine	
vi-o-lēns vi-o-lens	' (impetuous,	"	vī-s,	force	
lūc-u-lei	ntus,	full of light,	"	lūc in lūx,	light	
iūs-tus,		just,	44	iūs,	right	
āl-ā-tus,	,	winged,	"	āl-a,	wing	
turr-i-tu	ıs,	turreted,	44	turr-is,	turret	
corn-ū-t	us,	horned,	"	corn-u,	horn	

- 1. The suffix osus is one of the most important in the Latin language; the number of adjectives formed with it has been estimated to amount to eight hundred.
- 2. The suffix **ōsus** becomes **i-ōsus** by assuming **i** from some word like **stud-i-ōsus**, *studious*, and it becomes **u-ōsus** by assuming **u** from some word like **frūct-u-ōsus**, *fruitful*.
- 3. The suffixes tus, ā-tus, ī-tus, and ū-tus are the regular participial endings here applied to the formation of adjectives from nouns.
- 347. Material. Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made are generally formed with the suffixes

eus	nus 1	ı-eus ¹	āc-eus	ic-ius :
aur-eus, argent-eus,	of gold, gold of silver,	•	aur-um, ² argent-um,	gold silver
fāgi-nus, } fāgi-neus, }	of beech, bee	chen, "	fāg-us,2	a beech tree
ros-eus, } ros-āc-eus, }	made of rose	s, "	ros-a,	a rose
strāment-ic-ius	s, made of stra	w, "	strāment-um,	a straw

- 1. Most of these suffixes sometimes take on a more general meaning and denote characteristic or possession; pater-nus, paternal; vēr-nus, of spring, vernal; virgin-eus, maidenly.
- 348. Characteristic. Adjectives meaning in general belonging to, relating to, derived from, and the like, are formed from nouns with a great variety of suffixes. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of one class of these suffixes, viz.:

ālis	ēlis	Ilis	ūlis	āris	ārius :
vīt-ālis, mort-ālis,	of lij mort	e, vital,	from	vīt-a, mors, mort-is,	life death
fid-ēlis,	faith	ful,	"	fid-ēs,	faith, trust
patru-ēlis, cīv-īlis,	of ar civil,	uncle,	"	patru-us, cīv-is,	uncle citizen
vir-īlis, curr-ūlis,	mani	'y, chariot, curule,	"	vir, curr-us,	man a chariot
salūt-āris,	healt	hful,	"	salūt-is,	good health
statu-ārius,	perta	ining to statues	, "	statu-a,	statue

¹ The compound suffix n-eus is formed by adding eus to no, the stem of nus; āc eus by adding eus to āc, the stem of āx, and ic ius by adding ius = eus to ico, the stem of icus; see 350.

² Observe that the stem vowel is dropped before a vowel, but changed to 1 before a consonant.

- 1. These several suffixes are only different varieties of lis: the long vowels have been assumed from the stems to which the suffix has been added. Thus the a in vita-lis may be the stem vowel a of vita, but in mort-ālis it belongs to the suffix; the ē in fidē-lis is the stem vowel of fid-es, but in patru-elis it belongs to the suffix.
- 2. By dissimilation alis becomes aris after 1, as in salūt-aris; arius is an extension of aris.
- 3. Adjectives formed with these suffixes often become nouns, especially those in arius, arium, alis, and He: statu-arius, a statuary: libr-arium. a bookcase, from liber, a book; mort-alis, a mortal, a human being; ov-lle, a sheepfold, from ov-is, a sheep.
- 349. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes ē-nus

ur-nus

ā-nus

t-er-nus

ī-nus

t-ur-nus

ci-nus

a long time

in the format	ion of adjectives:			
vēr-nus,	of spring, vernal,	from	vēr,	spring
urb-ānus,	of a city,	"	urb-s,	city
terr-ēnus,	of the earth, earthy,	66	terr-a,	the earth
mar-inus,	of the sea, marine,		mar-e,	the sea
vāti-cinus,	prophetical,	66	vātē-s, vāti-s,	prophet
acer-nus,	of maple,	"	acer,	maple
hodi-ernus,	of this day,	"	hodi-ē,	this day, to-day
pater-nus,	of a father, paternal,	46	pater,	father
hes-ternus,	of yesterday,	66	her-I for hes-i,	yesterday
ebur-nus,	of ivory,	"	ebur,	ivory
noct-ur-nus,	by night, nightly,	44	nox, noct-is,	night

1. The basis of all these suffixes is nus; ci-nus is from co-nus; it adds nus to co, the stem of cus; see 350; er-nus and ter-nus follow the analogy of such words as ac-er-nus and pa-ter-nus, while ur-nus and t-ur-nus follow eb-ur-nus and noc-t-ur-nus.

" diū,

- 2. The suffix cinus is sometimes extended to cinius: vāti-cinius, prophetic.
- 3. Many adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and some words thus formed are always nouns in classical Latin: Inculānus, an islander, from insul-a; urb-ānus, a citizen, from urb-s; rag-ina, a queen, from rex, reg-is; medic-īna, medicine, from medi-cus, a physician.
- 4. Here may be mentioned the kindred suffixes onus, ona, thus, the patr-onus, patron, from pater; matr-ona, matron, from mater; tello-cuma. head of a tribe, tribune, from tribus, a tribe; fort-una, from fors, chause.

lasting,

nus

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diū-turnus,

350. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

cus i-cus t-icus ivus t-ivus ius cius i-cius ii-cius ti-cius in the formation of adjectives:

cīvi-cus,	of a citizen,	from	cīvi-s,	citizen
bell-icus,	of war, military,	44	bell-um,	war
cēnā-ticus,	relating to dinner,	"	cēna,	dinner
fēst-īvus,	pleasing,	"	fēst-us,	festive
tempes-tīvus,	timely,	"	tempus, tempes,	time
rēg-ius,	kingly, royal,	"	rēx, rēg-is,	king
ōrā-tōr-ius,	of an orator,	"	ōrā-tor,	orator
cēn-sōr-ius,	of a censor,	"	cēn-sor,	censor
sodāli-cius,	of a companion,	"	sodāli-s,	companion
patr-i-cius,	patrician,	"	pater,	fathe r
nov-I-cius,	new, inexperienced,	"	nov-us,	new
dēdi-tī-cius,	surrendered,	"	dēdi-tus,	given up

- 1. For īvus and t-īvus, see 331 and 331, 2.
- 2. The other suffixes are only different forms and combinations of cus and ius, both of which are in common use in kindred languages; t-icus and t-I-cius obtain the t from participial stems; cius is an extension of cus; ius added to verbal nouns in tor and sor gives rise to the compound suffix, tōr-ius, sōr-ius, which may be applied directly to verb stems. Thus ōrā-tōr-ius is derived from the verb ōrā-re through the verbal noun, ōrā-tor; see 334, 5.
- 3. A few adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and a few words thus formed are always used as nouns in classical Latin: rūs-ticus, countryman, peasant, from rūs, the country; patrician, from pater, father; rēg-ia, royal palace, from rēx, king; audī-tōr-ium, audience-room, from audī-tor, hearer.
- 351. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

	ter	tris	es-ter	•	es-tris	ensis			
in the formation of adjectives:									
palüs-ter,		marshy,		from	palūs,		marsh		
eques-ter, eques-tris,		of a horsemo	ın,	"	eques,		horseman		
camp-este	r,	of a level fie	ld, level,	"	camp-us,		level field		
silv-estris,		of a forest,	vooded,	"	silv-a,		fo rest		
castr-ēnsis	3,	of or in the	camp,	"	castr-a,		camp		

- 1. A few words formed from these suffixes are uniformly used as nouns, while a few others are occasionally so used: palüs-tria, marshy places, from palüs, marsh; eques-ter, knight, from eques, horseman.
- 2. The endings ter, tris, es-ter, and es-tris are different forms of the same suffix; the development of es-ter and es-tris from ter and tris is seen by comparing eques-ter and eques-tris, in which es belongs to the stem, with camp-ester and silv-estris, in which it is a part of the suffix; ēnsis is from *ent-ti-s, in which t-t becomes s.
- 352. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

ilis s-ilis¹ t-ilis¹ āt-ilis¹ ti-mus i-ti-mus in the formation of adjectives:

hum-ilis,	low, lowly,	from	hum-us,	the earth, ground
dap-s-ilis,	sumptuous,	"	dap-s,	feast
aquā-tilis,	living in water,	"	aqua,	water
sax-āt-ilis,	living among rocks,	"	sax-um,	rock
op-timus,	richest, best,	"	op-is,	of wealth, help
mari-timus,	maritime,	"	mare for mari,	sea
lēg-i-timus,	lawful,	"	lēx, lēg-is,	law

353. Adjectives from proper names generally end in

ānus, iānus, īnus ās, aeus, ēus ius, iacus, icus ēnsis, iēnsis: Sull-ānus, of Sulla, from Sulla, Sulla " Mari-ānus, of Marius. Marius. Marius " Ciceron-ianus. Ciceronian, Cicerō. Cicero Lat-inus, Latin, Latium, Latium Fiden-ās, of Fidenae, " Fidenae, Fidenae " Smyrn-aeus, Smyrnean, Smyrna. Smurna " Pvthagor-eus. Pythagorean, Pythagoras, Pythagoras " Corinth-ius. Corinthian. Corinthus. Corinth Corinth-iacus, Corinthian, " Corinthus, Corinth " Britann-icus, British, Britannus. a Briton " Cann-ēnsis. of Cannae. Cannae. Cannae Athen-iensis. Athenian. " Athēnae. Athens

- 1. Ānus and iānus are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.
- 2. Many adjectives from names of places become Patrial Nouns in the plural and designate the citizens of those places: Röm-ānī, the Romans, from Röm-a; Lat-īnī, the Latins, from Lat-ium.

¹ On these suffixes, see 329, 3.

354. The names of the Roman Gentes or Clans always ended in ius, masculine, and ia, feminine:

Aemil-ius, Aemil-ia App-ius, App-ia Cass-ius, Cass-ia Cornēl-ius, Cornēl-ia Fab-ius, Fab-ia Iūl-ius, Iūl-ia

- 1. These forms in ius and ia are often used as adjectives: circus Fläminius, the Flaminian circus; via Appia, the Appian way.
- 2. Many of the names of the Roman gentes were derived from common nouns or from adjectives: Virgin-ius, Virgin-ia, from virgō, maiden; Claud-ius, Claud-ia, from claud-us, lame.
- 3. The name of the gens to which a Roman citizen belonged formed one of the three names which he regularly bore: the first, or praenomen, designating the individual; the second, or nomen, the gens; and the third, or cognomen, the family. Thus Püblius Cornelius Scipio was Publius of the Scipio family of the Cornelian gens.
- 4. Many Roman family names, cognomina, like the English surnames Smith, Carpenter, and Green, are derived from common nouns or adjectives: Cornicen, Horn-blower; Figulus, Potter; Capit-o, Big-head; Lupus, Wolf; Taurus, Bull; Niger, Black.
- 5. Some personal names, praenomina, are also derived from common nouns or adjectives: Aulus, Flute; Mārcus, Hammer; Quintus, Fifth.
 - 6. In writing, personal names are generally represented by abbreviations:

\mathbf{A} . = Aulus	M.	= Mārcus	S. (Sex.)	= Sextus
\mathbf{Ap} . = Appius	M'.	= Mānius	Ser.	= Servius
\mathbf{C} . = $G\bar{a}ius^1$	Mam.	= Māmercus	Sp.	= Spurius
$Cn. = Gnaeus^1$	N.	= Numerius	T.	= Titus
D . = Decimus	P.	= Pūblius	Ti. (Tib.)) = Tiberius
L. = Lūcius	Q. (Qu.)) = Quīntus		

- 7. Sometimes an **āgnōmen** or surname was added to the three regular names. Thus **Scīpiō** received the surname **Āfricānus** from his victories in Africa: **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus**.
- 8. An adopted son took the full name of his adoptive father, and an agnomen in anus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octavius, when adopted by Caesar, became Gaius Iülius Caesar Octavianus. Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gaius Iülius Caesar Octavianus Augustus.
- 9. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Jūlius Caesar was simply Iūlia; of Cornēlius Scīpiō, Cornēlia. Two daughters in any family of the Cornelian gens would be known as Cornēlia and Cornēlia Secunda or Minor.

¹ On the use of C for G, see 5, 1 and 3.

Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions

355. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions with the following suffixes:

nus	ā-neu	ıs ārius	er-nus	te	er-nus tu	r-nus	ti-nus
ter-nus,		three-fold,		from	ter,	three tir	nes
extr-āne ex tr-ā riı	. (from without	, external,	"	extr-ā,	on the c	utside
hodi-ern	us,	of this day,		"	hodi-ē,	this day	, to-day
hes-tern	us,	of yesterday,		4.6	herī for hes-i	, yesterda	ıy
diū-turn diū-tinu	- (lasting,		"	diū,	a long t	time

DERIVATION AND HISTORY OF LATIN VERBS

- 356. The oldest Latin verbs were all inherited from the parent speech. They comprise three classes:
 - I. Root Verbs, in which the bare root is the present stem.
- II. Thematic Verbs, in which the present stem ends in the thematic vowel.
 - III. Verbs whose present stem is formed with the suffix io.

I. - Root Verbs

- 357. In Root Verbs personal endings are added directly to the bare root, which forms the present stem. This is the most primitive form of verbal inflection known in our family of languages, and has almost disappeared from the Latin. Only a few isolated forms of irregular verbs remain, of which the following are the most important:
 - 1. From the root es, to be: es = es-s, es-t, es-tis, es-te, es-to, es-tote.
- 2. From the root $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{d}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}$, to eat: $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\cdot\mathbf{s}=\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{d}\cdot\mathbf{s}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}\cdot\mathbf{t}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}\cdot\mathbf{t}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}\cdot\mathbf{t}$, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{s}\cdot\mathbf{t}$
 - 3. From the root \(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\), to go: \(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\)-t, \(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\)-tis, \(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\)-tis, \(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\)-t\(\bar{\bar{\pi}}\).
- 4. From the root fer, to bear: fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, fer-te, fer, fer-tō, fer-tōte, with a few passive forms.
 - 5. From the root vel, vol, to wish: vol-t, vul-t, vol-tis, vul-tis.
- 6. From the root $d\bar{o}$, da, to give: $d\bar{o}$, $d\bar{a}$ -s = $d\bar{o}$ -s, da-t, da-mus, da-tis, da-nt, $d\bar{a}$, da-te, da- $t\bar{o}$, da-tōte.

Note. — Many forms from these roots are thematic, as s-u-m, s-u-mus, s-u-nt, etc.

II. - Thematic Verbs

358. The Present Stem ends in the thematic vowel, which was originally e or o, but in Latin it generally takes the form of i or u. The personal endings are added to this vowel. This class includes most verbs of the Third Conjugation:

rēg-e-re, to rule; rēg-i-t, rēg-i-mus, rēg-i-tis, rēg-u-nt.

III. - Verbs formed with the suffix io

- 359. This class includes four sub-divisions:
- 1. A group of A-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in o, from z-io, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in z in the other persons:
- hiāre, to gape; present stem, hi-o, hi-ā: hi-ō,¹ hi-ā-mus, hi-ā-tis lavāre, to wash; " lav-o, lav-ā: lav-ō, lav-ā-mus, lav-ā-tis
- 2. A group of E-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in eo, from ē-io or e-io, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in ē in the other persons:
- favēre, to favor; present stem, fav-eo, fav-ē: fav-eō,¹ fav-ē-mus, fav-ē-tis vidēre, to see; " vid-eo, vid-ē: vid-eō, vid-ē-mus, vid-ē-tis
- Note 1.— A few verbs formed with the suffix e-iō are causative in meaning: mon-eō, mon-ē-re, to cause to remember, from the root men, remember; noc-eō, noc-ē-re, to cause to suffer, from nec, death, ruin.
- Note 2.—In Causative verbs, the root vowel e takes its ablaut form o; see 326, 3. Hence the root men becomes mon in mon-eō; nec becomes noc in noc-eō.
- 3. A group of I-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in io, from ī-io, in the first person singular of the Present tense, in iu in the third person plural, and in ī in the other persons:
- venīre, to come; pres. stem ven-io, ven-iu, ven-ī: ven-iō, ven-ī-mus, ven-iu-nt
- Note. In a few verbs in $i\bar{o}$, the thematic vowel takes the place of i: capere, to take: cap-i \bar{o} , cap-i-mus, cap-i-tis, cap-iu-nt.
- 4. Probably a very few U-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in o, from io, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in the thematic vowel in the other persons:

suere, to sew, su-ō, su-i-mus, su-i-tis, su-u-nt

 $^{^1}$ Observe that the first person singular of the Present has $\delta,$ but that its stem has o.

Note. — The four groups of inherited verbs just mentioned — viz. a group of a-verbs, or verbs of the First Conjugation, a group of e-verbs, or verbs of the Second Conjugation, a group of i-verbs, or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation, and a very few u-verbs of the Third Conjugation — served the Romans for all time as models for the formation of new verbs from the stems of nouns and adjectives. Thus all the Latin verbs were either inherited by the Romans or made by them on inherited models.

THE FORMATION OF VERBS FROM THE STEMS OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

360. A-Verbs are generally formed from a-stems, but sometimes from other vowel stems and even from consonant stems, especially from n- and s-stems:

cūr-ō,	-ā-re,	to care for,	from	cūr-a,	care
lacrim-ō,	-ā-re,	to shed tears,	"	lacrim-a,	tear
numer-ō,	-ā-re,	to number,	66	numer-us,	numbe r
lev-ō,	-ā-re,	to lighten,	"	lev-is,	light
aestu-ō,	-ā-re,	to rage,	"	aestu-s,	a raging
nōmin-ō,	-ā-re,	to name,	66	nōmen,	name
oner-ō,	-ā-re,	to burden,	"	onus, oner-is,	burden

361. E-Verbs are generally formed from o-stems, rarely from consonant stems:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	to be white,	from	alb-us,	white
claud-eō,	-ē-re,	to be lame,	"	claud-us,	lame
flōr-eō,	-ē-re,	to flower,	"	flōs, flōr-is,	flower
lūc-eō,	-ē-re,	to be light,	44	lūx, lūc-is,	light

1. E-Verbs are generally intransitive; indeed, from the same stem are sometimes formed an a-Verb with a transitive meaning and an e-Verb with an intransitive meaning:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	to be white,	f mam	alb-us,	white
alb-ō,	-ā-re,	to make white,	irom	aib-us,	wnite
clār-eō,	-ē-re,	to be bright,	"	clār-us.	hu/ula
clār-ō,	-ā-re,	to make bright, }	••	ciar-us,	bright

362. I-Verbs are generally formed from i-stems; but sometimes from o-stems, u-stems and consonant stems:

fīn-iō,	fin-ī-re,	to finish,	from fīn-is,	end
lēn-iō,	lēn-ī-re,	to make gentle,	" lēn-is,	gentle

¹ Remember that 0-stems have an ablaut form in e.

serv-iō, serv-ī-re, to serve, from serv-us, servant gest-iō, gest-ī-re, to gesture, "gest-us, gesture cūstōd-iō, cūstōd-ī-re, to guard, "cūstōs, guard

363. U-Verbs are formed from u-stems:

met-uō, met-u-ere, to fear, from met-us, fear stat-uō, stat-u-ere, to place, "stat-us, position, place

364. Frequentatives, or Intensives, denote Repeated, Continued, or Intense Action. They are of the First Conjugation, and are formed from verb stems or roots with the following suffixes:

	tō	sō	itō	tit	ō	sitō		
cap-tō,	to sna	tch,		from	cap-ere	,	to take	
da-tō,	to giv	e frequent	ly,	"	da-re,		to give	
cur-sō,	to run	about,		"	cur-rer	е,	to run	
ag-itō,	to mo	ve violent	ly,	"	ag-ere,		to move,	drive
scrīp-titō,¹	to wri	te often,		"	scrīb-ei	e,	to write	
cur-sitō,	to run	ı hit her a	nd thither	, "	cur-rer	е,	to run	

- 1. Frequentatives were originally denominatives formed from the participle in tus or sus, but itō became an independent suffix and was added to the stems of verbs, regardless of the form of the participle; hence ag-itō, not āc-tō. The extension of to or so by itō gives the compound suffix titō or sitō, but some verbs formed with these suffixes may be explained as derivatives from other frequentatives. Thus cant-itō may be formed from cant-ō, a frequentative from can-ō; curs-itō from curs-ō from curs-ō.
- 2. A few Intensives of the Third Conjugation, denoting Eager rather than Repeated action, end in essō, rarely issō: fac-essō, to do or perform eagerly, from fac-ere, to do, perform; incip-issō, to begin eagerly, from incip-ere, to begin.
- **365.** Inceptives, or Inchoatives, denote the Beginning of the action. They are regularly formed from the present stem of verbs by adding scō:

gelā-scō,	to begin to freeze,	from	gelā-re,	to freeze
calē-scō,	to begin to be warm,	"	calē-re,	to be warm
virē-scō,	to grow green,	4.6	virē-re,	to be green
obdormī-scō,	to fall asleep,	"	obdormi-re,	to sleep

1. The endings asco, esco, and isco, including the stem vowel of the primitive, finally became independent suffixes, and were added to the stems of verbs and apparently to the stems of nouns without regard to the char-

¹ Remember that before t, g becomes c and b becomes p; see 55, 1.

acter of the stein vowel: trem-ēscō, trem-īscō, to begin to tremble, from trem-ere, to tremble; puer-āscō, to reach boyhood, from puer, a boy.

366. Desideratives, denoting a Desire to perform the action, end in turio or surio:

```
ēmp-turiō,¹ to desire to purchase, from em-ere, to purchase scrip-turiō, to desire to write, '' scrib-ere, to write ē-suriō,² to desire to eat, '' ed-ere, to eat
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367. Diminutives, denoting a feeble action, end in illo:

```
cant-ill-ō, -āre, to sing feelly, from cant-āre, to sing cōnscrīb-ill-ō, -āre, to scribble, "cōnscrīb-ere, to write
```

- 1. Diminutives in illo are probably formed from verb stems through diminutive verbal nouns.
- 368. Denominatives are also formed with the suffixes icō and igō:

```
medic-or, medic-ārī,
                        to heal,
                                          from medic-us.
                                                             physician
                                                claud-us.
claud-icō, claud-icāre,
                        to be lame,
                                                             lame
rēmig-ō, remig-āre,
                        to be an oarsman,
                                                rēmex.
                                                             oarsman
          mīt-igāre,
mīt-igō.
                        to make gentle,
                                                mīt-is.
                                                             aentle
```

1. Observe that in **medic-or** the letters ic belong to the stem of **medic-us**, while in **claud-icō** they have become a part of the suffix icō; also that in **rēmig-ō** the letters ig belong to the stem of rēmex, while in **mīt-igō** they have become a part of the suffix igō.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS

369. Many compound words are formed by uniting two or more stems and adding the suffixes of inflection when needed. The stem vowel of the first member of the compound generally disappears before a vowel and generally takes the form of **i** before a consonant:

māgn-animus,	from	māgno-animo-s,	magnanimous,	o disappears
grand-aevus,	"	grandi-aevo-s,	of great age,	i disappears
omni-potēns,	44	omni-potent-s,	omnipotent,	i retained
corni-cen,	"	cornu-cen,	trumpeter,	u changed to i
capri-cornus,	66	capro-cornu-s,	capri-corn,	o changed to i

¹ Em-p-turio; p is generally thus developed between m and t; see 52, 5.

² E-suriō, from *ēd-turiō, from ēd, the strong form of the root of ed-ō; for euphonic changes, see 52, 1.

- 1. Consonant stems generally assume i before another consonant, as, honor-i-ficus, honorable.
- 2. The ending of the second member is sometimes slightly changed, especially in compound adjectives, which regularly pass into the I-Declension: multi-form-is, with many forms.
- 3. Compounds in ex,¹ dex, fex, cen, cīda, and cola deserve notice: rēm-ex, oarsman; iū-dex, judge; arti-fex, artist; corni-cen, cornet-player; homi-cīda, man-slayer; agri-cola, tiller of the soil.
- 4. Note also compound adjectives in ceps,² fer, ger, dicus, ficus, and volus: parti-ceps, taking part; auri-fer, bearing gold; armi-ger, carrying arms, armor-bearer; fāti-dicus, prophesying; mīri-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.
- **370.** Compound words are also formed by prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word with which it could not be used separately in the same sense:

Im-memor, un-mindful; in-somnis, sleep-less; inter-regnum, an inter-regnum, the interval between two reigns; per-nox, lasting all night; per-facilis, very easy; ad-esse, to be present; 5-discere, to learn thoroughly.

371. Compound words are also formed by uniting two or more words which already sustain to each other some syntactical relation:

Duo-decim, twelve; Mārs-piter, father Mars; postrī-diē, on the following day; quot-annis, yearly, on all years; māgn-operē = māgnō opere, greatly; dē-nuō = dē novō, a-new.

- 1. In these examples observe that words, not stems, are united: duo and decem; Mārs and pater.
- 2. Compounds formed by the union of two or more words are sometimes called Syntactic Compounds. Many such were formed by the Romans during the classical period.
- 372. Compound Nouns and Adjectives may be divided according to their meaning into three classes:
- 1. Determinative Compounds, in which the second part is qualified by the first: inter-rex, interrex; bene-volus, well-wishing; per-magnus, very great; in-dignus, unworthy.

¹ Ex (ig-is), dex (dic-is), fex (fic-is), cen, cid-a, and col-a are derived from the verbal roots seen in ag-ere, to drive; dic-ere, to tell; fac-ere, to make; can-ere, to sing, play; caed-ere, to slay, and col-ere, to cultivate.

² Cep.s, fer, ger, dic-us, fic-us, and vol-us are from the roots of cap-ere, to take; fer-re, to bear; ger-ere, to carry; dic-ere, to tell; fac-ere, to make, and vol-ō, vel-le, to wish.

- 2. Objective Compounds, in which the second part is limited by the first as object: prin-ceps, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; homicida, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field.
- 3. Possessive Compounds, generally best rendered by supplying having or possessing: aēni-pēs, having bronze feet; celeri-pēs, swift-footed; āli-pēs, wing-footed, having wings for feet; māgn-animus, having a great soul.
- 373. Compound Verbs. Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs: 2

Ab-ire, to go away; * ex-ire, to go out; * prod-ire, to go forth; convocare, to call together; de-cidere, to fall off; prae-dicere, to foretell.

- 1. But a few compounds of fació and fio contain a verbal form in e or ē: cale-facere, to make warm; cale-fierī, to become warm; consuē-facere, to accustom.
- 2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds: satis facere or satis-facere, to satisfy, do enough for; animum advertere or anim-advertere, to notice, turn the mind to.
- 3. Verbs in ficō, like the following, are probably best explained as denominatives: 4 aedi-ficāre, to build, from aedifex; ampli-ficāre, to enlarge, from amplificus.
- 4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel changes in accordance with phonetic law; see 231.
- 374. Prepositions in Composition. The following facts in regard to the Form and Meaning of prepositions in composition are added for reference:
- 1. \overline{A} , ab, abs. Form: a before m and w, and before f in the verb sum; abs before c, q, t, and, with the loss of b, also before p; ab in other situations. Meaning: away, off: \overline{a} -mittere, to send away; abs-condere, to hide away; ab-esse, to be away; \overline{a} -ful, I have been away; abs-portare, as-portare, to carry off; in adjectives, generally negative: \overline{a} -mēns, without mind, frantic; ab-similis, un-like.
- 2. Ad. Form: generally unchanged, but d is assimilated before c, generally before p and t, and sometimes before g, 1, r, and s, and generally dropped before gn, sc, sp, and st. Meaning: to, toward, to one's self; on,

¹ Observe the force of the compound. Aënus pës means a brazen foot, but aëni-pës means having brazen feet.

² The words thus formed are strictly compounds of verbs with adverbs.

⁸ Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles ab, ex, etc., away, out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliary to the case endings; see 312.

⁴ In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

- at, near, in addition: ad-ducere, to lead to; ac-cipere, to receive; adgerere or ag-gerere, to carry to; a-spicere, to look at; ad-discere, to learn in addition.
- 3. Ante. Form: unchanged except in anti-cipare, to take before, and sometimes in composition with stare. Meaning: before, in preference to: ante-currere, to run before; ante-habere, to prefer.
- 4. Circum. Form: sometimes circu in composition with e5, ire. Meaning: round, about: circum-mittere, to send round; circum-ire or circu-ire, to go round.
- 5. Com, con, co. Form: com before b, m, p, and in com-edere, to eat up; m assimilated before r and sometimes before 1; co before vowels, except in com-edere, before h, gn, and sometimes before n; con in other situations. Meaning: together, with, in various senses: com-bibere, to drink together; co-īre, to go together; con-loquī, col-loquī, to talk with or together; completely, thoroughly: con-citāre, to rouse thoroughly; con-dēnsus, very dense.
- 6. E, ex. Form: ex before vowels and before c, h, p, q, s, t, and with assimilation before f; e before the other consonants. Meaning: out, forth, without, free from: ex-īre, to go out or forth; ex-sanguis, without blood; thoroughly, completely, successfully: ex-ūrere, to burn up; ef-ficere, to do successfully; ē-dūrus, very hard.
- 7. In. Form: n is generally assimilated before m, often before r and sometimes before l, generally changed to m before b and p, otherwise unchanged. Meaning: in, into, on, at, against: in-colere, to dwell in; in-ridere or ir-ridere, to laugh at; im-pūgnāre, to fight against.
- 8. Inter. Form: unchanged, except in intel-legere, to understand. Meaning: between, together, sometimes involving interruption or ruin: inter-venīre, to come between; inter-dīcere, to forbid, inter-dict; inter-ire, to perish.
- 9. Ob, obs. Form: generally ob, but b is assimilated before c, f, g, and p and dropped in o-mittere, to omit; obs in obs-olescere, to grow old, and with the loss of b in os-tendere, to display. Meaning: before, in the way, against: of-ferre, to bring before; ob-stare, to stand in the way; op-pagnare, to fight against; down, completely: oc-cidere, to cut down.
- 10. Per. Form: generally unchanged, but sometimes r is assimilated before 1 and dropped before i consonant in compounds of itrere, as periturere, peierere, to swear falsely. Meaning: through, thoroughly; sometimes with the idea of breaking through, disregarding: per-legere or pel-legere, to read through; per-discere, to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.
- 11. Post. Form: generally unchanged. Meaning: after, behind: post-habere, to place after, esteem less.
 - 12. Prod, pro. Form: generally pro, but prod, the original form, is

retained in a few words before vowels. Meaning: forth, forward, before, for: prod-Ire, to go forth; procurrere, to run forward; pro-pugnare, to fight in front of, to fight for; pro-hibère, to hold aloof, to prohibit.

- 13. Sub, subs. Form: generally sub, but b is assimilated before c, f, g, and p, and often before m and r. B is dropped before sp; subs, shortened to sus or su, occurs in a few words. Meaning: under, down, from under, in place of, secretly, somewhat, slightly: sub-ire, to go under; sub-ducere, to draw from under, withdraw; su-spicere, to look up; sus-cipere, to undertake; sub-stituere, to substitute; sub-ripere, to take away secretly; sub-difficilis, somewhat difficult.
- 14. Trāns. Form: generally unchanged, but trān is the usual form before s, and trā is often used before d, i consonant, l, m, and n. Meaning: across, through, completely: trāns-currere, to run across; trānsilīre, to leap across; trā-dūcere, to lead across; trāns-igere, to transact, finish.

375. The following inseparable Particles occur in composition:

- 1. Ambi. Form: generally amb before vowels and am before consonants, but an is used before c, q, and f. Meaning: around, round, on both sides, in two directions: amb-īre, to go round; amb-igere, to act in two ways, to hesitate; am-putāre, to cut round or off; an-quīrere, to search round.
 - 2. Au: away, from: au-fugere, to flee away.
- 3. Dis, dī. Form: dis before p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and sometimes before i consonant, but s is assimilated before f and changed to r before a vowel; dī in most other situations. Meaning: apart, asunder, between, sometimes negative and sometimes intensive: dis-tinēre, to hold apart; dif-fugere, to flee asunder; dir-imere, to take in pieces, destroy; difficilis, dif-ficult, not easy; dī-laudāre, to praise highly.
- 4. In. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in. Meaning: not, un-: I-gnoscere, not to know, to pardon; im-memor, un-mindful; in-imicus, un-friendly.
- 5. Por. Form: r assimilated before 1 and s. Meaning: forth, before, near: pol-liceri, to hold forth, promise; pos-sidere, to sit near, possess; por-rigere, to hold forth, to offer.
- 6. Red, re. Form: red before vowels, before h and in red-dere; re in other situations. Meaning: back, again, in return, sometimes not, un: red-īre, to go back; re-ficere, to repair, to make again; re-sīgnāre, to unseal.
- 7. Sēd, sē: generally sē; apart, aside: sē-cēdere, to go apart, se-cede; sēd-itiō, a going apart, sedition.
- 8. Vē: not, without; vē-sānus, not sane; vē-cors, without heart, senseless.

PART IV.—SYNTAX

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

- 376. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 377. A sentence is a word, or a combination of words, expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.
 - A simple sentence expresses a single thought:
 Römulus urbem condidit, Romulus founded the city.
- A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences:
 Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, vos tyrannos introducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce turants.
 - 3. A Declarative Sentence has the form of an assertion: Miltiades accūsātus est, *Miltiades was accused*.
 - 4. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question: Quis non paupertatem extimescit, who does not fear poverty?
 - 5. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command or entreaty: Liberā rem pūblicam metū, free the republic from fear.
 - 6. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation: Reliquit quos viros, what men he has left!
- 378. Simple Interrogative sentences are generally introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or by an interrogative particle, ne, non-ne, or num: ne asking for information; nonne generally implying an affirmative answer, and num a negative answer:

Quis doctior Aristotele fuit, who was more learned than Aristotle? Quid tandem to impedit, what, pray, hinders you? Hora quota est, what time is it? Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Estisne vos legatimissi, were you sent as ambassadors? Nonne nobilitari volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Num igitur peccamus, are we then at fault?

1. But questions in Latin, as in English, sometimes dispense with the interrogative word, especially in impassioned discourse:

Ego non potero, shall I not be able? Vis recte vivere, do you wish to live rightly?

- 2. The particle **ne** is regularly appended to the emphatic word of the sentence; appended to **non** it forms **non-ne**. It is, however, sometimes added to other interrogative words without affecting their meaning, as in **utrum-ne**, quanta-ne, etc.
- 3. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, is often found in interrogative sentences, as in the second example.
- 4. Nam appended to an interrogative also adds emphasis, as in ubinam in the fourth example.
- 5. For two interrogatives in the same clause, and for an interrogative with tantus, see 511, 3 and 4.
- 379. Answers.—In replying to a question of fact the Latin usually repeats some emphatic word, or its equivalent, often with prorsus, vero, and the like, or, if negative, with non:

Nempe negās, do you indeed deny? Prorsus nego, certainly I deny; C. Tusc. 5, 5. Possumusne esse tūtī, can we be safe? Non possumus, we can not; C. Ph. 12, 12. Tuam vestem dētrāxit tibī, did he strip your garment from you? Factum, he did, lit. done = it was done; T. Eun. 707.

1. Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, sānē, etiam, ita, vērō, certē, etc.; negatively, nōn, minimē, etc.:

Visne sermoni demus operam sedentes, do you wish us to (that we should) attend to the conversation sitting? Sane quidem, yes indeed; C. Leg. 2, 1. Venitne, has he come? Non, no; Pl. Ps. 1067.

380. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alternative. The first clause generally has utrum or ne, or it omits the particle; the second generally has an, as follows:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Römamne veniö, an hīc maneam, am I going to Rome or am I to remain here? Haec vēra, an falsa sunt, are these things true or false?

- 1. A negative in the second clause gives an non, very rarely nec-ne:
- Isne est quem quaero, an non, is he the one whom I seek or not? T. Ph. 852. Sunt haec tua verba, necne, are these your words, or not? C. Tusc. 8, 18.
- 2. In poetry and later prose the first clause may have utrum-ne, or utrum . . . ne, and the second an:

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Utrumne persequemur otium, an, etc., shall we enjoy our leisure, or, etc.? Utrum praedicemne, an taceam, shall I make it known, or be silent?

3. By the omission of the first clause, the second sometimes stands alone with an in the sense of or, and sometimes an is used to introduce interrogative sentences which do not seem to involve an ellipsis:

Quid ais, what do you say? An venit Pamphilus, or has Pamphilus come?

4. By the omission of the second clause, the first sometimes stands alone with utrum:

Utrum hoc bellum non est, is not this war? C. Ph. 8, 2, 7.

5. One or two rare forms occur in poetry, as ne...ne, in Vergil, and ...ne, once in Horace:

Iŭstitiaene prius mīrer bellīne, should I more admire your regard for justice or your martial deeds? V. 11, 126. Māiōra minōrane fāmā, are they superior or inferior to their fame? H. E. 1, 11.

6. Disjunctive, or Compound Questions, are sometimes extended to three or more members. Indeed Cicero, Pro Domo, 22, 57, has a question of this kind with eight members.

II. ELEMENTS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

- 381. The Simple Sentence, alike in its most simple and in its most expanded form, consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied, and of only two:
 - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks.
 - 2. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject.
- 382. The Simple or unmodified Subject may be a noun, a pronoun, expressed or implied, or some word or words used as a noun; and the Simple or unmodified Predicate may be either a verb alone or a suitable verb, generally sum, with a Predicate Noun or a Predicate Adjective:

Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies. Ego scrībō, I write. Vicimus, we have conquered. Dolēre malum est, to suffer is an evil. Vita cāra est, life is dear.

- 1. In these examples observe that the subjects are Cluilius, ego, the pronoun implied in vīci-mus, the Infinitive dolēre used as a noun, and vīta. These subjects are all in the Nominative, according to 387.
- 2. Observe that the predicates are moritur, scrībō, vīcimus, malum est and cāra est. Malum, thus used, is called a Predicate Noun, and cāra a Predicate Adjective.

383. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with one or more modifiers, generally an adjective, a noun in apposition, or a Genitive:

Albānus rēx moritur, the Alban king dies. Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Perūtilēs Xenophontis librī sunt, the books of Xenophon are very useful.

- Observe that the complex subjects are Albānus rēx, Cluilius rēx, and Xenophontis librī.
- 2. In distinction from a predicate noun, or a predicate adjective, any noun or adjective used simply as a modifier of the subject, or of any other noun, is called an Attributive Noun or Adjective.
- 3. A noun or pronoun, used to describe or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is said to be in Apposition with it and is called an Appositive: Cluilius rex, Cluilius the king. Appositives therefore form one variety of attributive nouns.
- **384.** The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers. These may be objective modifiers, adverbial modifiers, or both:

Gloria virtutem sequitur, glory follows merit. Sapientes feliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. In his castris Cluilius moritur, in this camp Cluilius dies. Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, the bridge well-nigh offered a passage to the enemy.

- 1. Here observe that the modifier in the first example is the object **virtū-**tem, in the second the adverb **fēlīciter**, in the third the adverbial expression in hīs castrīs, and in the fourth the direct object iter, the indirect object hostibus, and the adverb paene.
 - 2. All nouns may be modified like the subject; see 383.
- 3. All adjectives may be modified by adverbs, and some adjectives may be modified by certain oblique cases:

Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Semper avidī laudis fuistis, you have always been desirous of praise. Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of you.

III. ELEMENTS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

385. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more independent sentences, combined without any change of form:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Audendum est aliquid, aut omnia patienda, something must be risked, or everything must be endured.

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386. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more sentences so combined that one of them retains its independent form while the others are made subordinate to it:

Priusquam incipiās, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation.

- 1. In sentences of this kind the part which makes complete sense, consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation, is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it, priusquam incipias, before you begin, is called the Dependent or Subordinate Clause.
- 2. The subordinate clause may be the subject or the predicate of the compound sentence or the modifier either of the subject or of the predicate:

Quid dies ferat, incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, sibī nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse posse, the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with them. Ego, qui tē cōnfīrmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I who encourage you am unable to encourage myself. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam, I heard Zeno when I was at Athens.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE - RULES OF AGREEMENT

SUBJECT NOMINATIVE

387. Rule. — The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative:

Rōmulus rēgnāvit, Romulus reigned. Glōria virtūtem sequitur, glory fallows merit. Īgnōrō quid agās, I do not know how you are. Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants; Ad Her. 4, 58.

- 1. A Pronominal Subject is seldom expressed, as it is implied in the ending of the verb, as in the third example, but it may be expressed for emphasis or contrast, as in the last example.
 - 2. For the different forms of the subject, see 382.
 - 3. The subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative; see 415.

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¹ In the first example, the clause quid dies ferat is the subject; in the second, sibi . . . posse is the predicate; in the third, qui . . . confirmo, a modifier of the subject; and in the fourth, cum . . . essem, a modifier of the predicate.

AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH SUBJECT

388. Rule. — A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person:

Romulus urbem condidit, Romulus founded the city. Castor et Pollux ex equis pugnare visi sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback; C. N. D. 2, 2. Scribam ad te, I shall write to you.

- 1. Participles in compound tenses also agree with the subject in gender according to 394, 1, as in the second example.
- 2. For the pronominal subject implied in the verb, as in the last example, see 387, 1.
- 3. A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted by impersonal passive forms and by certain persons of the active, as the first and third person plural Indicative and Subjunctive and the second person singular Subjunctive. dicimus, we (people) say; dicunt, they say; dicas, you (any one) may say:

Ad vesperum pügnātum est, they fought till evening. Quae volumus. crēdimus, we believe what we wish. Agere quod agās considerāte decet, you should do considerately whatever you do; C. Off 1, 27.

4. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially est and sunt in proverbs and brief sayings:

Omnia praeclāra rāra, all excellent things are rare; C. Am. 21. Quot hominēs, tot sententiae, as many opinions as men; T. Ph. 454. Ecce tuae litterae, lo, your letter; C. Att. 18, 16.

5. Dīcō and faciō are often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Pauca de me, a few words in regard to myself; C. N. D. 8, 2. Quid opus est plura, what need of (saying) more? C. Sen. 1, 8. Quae cum dixisset, Cotta finem, having thus spoken (when he had thus spoken), Cotta closed (made an end); C. N. D. 8, 40.

6. Facio is often omitted in Livy after nihil aliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, nothing other (more, less, etc.) than, merely; nihil praeterquam, nothing except, merely:

Nihil aliud quam stetërunt parātī ad pūgnandum, they merely stood prepared for battle: L. 34, 46.

7. Certain brief forms of expression very often dispense with the verb: quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergo, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? ne plura, not to say more; quid hoc ad me, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

- 389. Synesis. Sometimes, especially in poetry and in Livy, the predicate is construed according to the real meaning of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus
- 1. With collective nouns, iuventūs, multitūdō, pars, and the like. These, though singular in form, are often plural in sense:

Iuventūs ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend; V. 2, 68. Multitūdō abeunt, the multitude depart; L. 24, 8. Māgna pars abeunt, a large part withdraws; S. 60, 8.

Note. — In the first example, observe that the former of the two verbs is in the singular and the latter in the plural, not an uncommon construction with collective nouns.

2. With mīlia, often masculine in sense:

Sex milia peditum more Macedonum armātī fuere, six thousand of the infantry were armed in the manner of Macedonians; L. 87, 40.

3. With quisque, uterque, alius . . . alium, alter . . . alterum, and the like:

Uterque eōrum exercitum ēdūcunt, each of them leads out his army; Caes. C. 3, 30. Alius alium domōs suās invitant, they invite each other to their homes; S. 66, 3.

- 4. With a singular subject accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

 Dux cum principibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken; L. 21, 60.
- 5. With partim . . . partim in the sense of pars . . . pars:

Bonorum partim necessaria sunt, partim non necessaria, of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary; C. Part. 24, 86.

6. Occasionally in poetry with a neuter pronoun or adjective limited by a Partitive Genitive:

Quid hūc tantum hominum (= tot homines) incedunt, why are so many men coming this way? P. Poen. 619.

390. The verb agrees, not with its subject, but with the Predicate Noun, or with a noun after quam, nisi, etc., when that noun is nearer than the subject and when the subject is an Infinitive or a clause:

Non omnis error stultitia dicenda est, not every error should be called folly; C. Div. 2, 43. Pueri Troianum dicitur agmen, the boys are called the Trojan band; V. 5, 602. Nihil aliud nisi pax quaesita est, nothing but peace was sought; C. Off. 1, 23. Contentum suis rebus esse maximae sunt divitiae, to be content with one's own is the greatest wealth; C. Parad. 6, 3.

391. The verb often agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive, regularly when the appositive is oppidum:

Corinthus, Graeciae lümen, exstinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, was extinguished; C. Man. 5, 11. Volsinii, oppidum Tuscorum, concrematum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned.

392. With two or more subjects, the verb may agree either with one subject and be understood with the others, or with all the subjects conjointly:

Homērus fuit et Hēsiodus ante Rōmam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived before the founding of Rome; C. Tusc. 1, 1, 3. Aut mores speciari aut fortuna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Pompēius, Lentulus, Scīpiō periērunt, Pompey, Lentulus, and Scipio perished. Ego et Cicerō valēmus, Cicero and I are well; C. Fam. 14, 5. Tū et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Pater mihl et måter mortul sunt, my father and mother are dead: T. Eun. 517. Labor voluptāsque inter sē sunt iuncta, labor and pleasure are joined together; L. 5, 4.

- 1. The verb generally agrees with one subject and is understood with the others, when it stands before the subjects or between them, as in the first example, and when the subjects represent inanimate objects, as in the second example.
- 2. A verb agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Person, takes the first person rather than the second and the second rather than the third, as in the fourth and fifth examples.
- 3. A participle in a compound tense, agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Gender, is masculine if the subjects denote persons, otherwise generally neuter, as in the sixth and seventh examples.
- 4. Two Subjects as a Unit. Two singular subjects forming in sense a Unit or Whole admit a singular verb:

Cui senātus populusque Romānus praemia dedit, to whom the senate and Roman people (i.e. the state as a unit) gave rewards; C. Balb. 4, 10. tempus necessităsque postulat, but the time and necessity (i.e. the crisis) demand; C. Off. 1, 28, 81.

5. With Aut or Neque. — When subjects connected by aut, vel, neque, nec, sive, or seu are of the same person, the verb generally agrees with the nearest subject, but when they differ in person, the verb is generally plural:

Aut Brūtus aut Cassius iūdicāvit, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Haec neque ego neque tū fēcimus, neither you nor I have done these things; T. Ad. 108.

APPOSITIVES AND PREDICATE NOUNS

393. Rule. — A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Appositives. — Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Saguntum, foederātam cīvitātem, expūgnāvit, he took Saguntum, an allied town. Themistoclēs vēnī ad tē, I, Themistocles, have come to you; N. 2, 9. Venus, rēgīna Cnidī, Venus, the queen of Cnidus; H. 1, 30.

Predicates. — Usus magister est, experience is a teacher; C. R. Post. 4, 9. Vīta magistra est, life is an instructress; C. Rosc. A. 27, 75. Exstitistī tū vindex nostrae lībertātis, you have appeared as the defender of our liberty. Servius rēx est dēclārātus, Servius was declared king.

- 1. An appositive or a predicate noun with different forms for different genders must agree in gender as well as in case; as Cluilius rēx, Venus rēgīna, ūsus magister, vīta magistra, above.
- 2. An appositive or a predicate noun may agree with a pronoun, whether expressed or only implied in the ending of a verb. Thus **Themistocles** above agrees with a pronoun implied in **veni**, while **vindex** agrees with **tū** expressed.
- 3. Clauses. A noun or pronoun may be an appositive or predicate of a clause, or a clause an appositive or predicate of a noun or pronoun:

Cēterum, id quod non timēbant, prope libertās āmissa est, but liberty was almost lost, that which they did not fear; L. 2, 8. Facinus est vincīre cīvem Romānum, to bind a Roman citizen is a crime. Orāculum datum erat victrīcēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious; C. Tusc. 1, 28.

4. Partitive Apposition. — The parts may be appositives or predicates of the whole, or the whole may be an appositive or predicate of the parts:

Duo rēgēs, ille bellō, hīc pāce, cīvitātem auxērunt, two kings advanced the interests of the state, the former by war, the latter by peace; L. 1, 21. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, rēgēs Aegyptī, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt; ct. L. 37, 3. Nautius et Fūrius consules erant, Nautius and Furius were consuls; L. 2, 39.

5. Predicate Apposition. — Appositives sometimes have nearly the force of subordinate clauses:

Aedem Salūtis dictātor dēdicāvit, he dedicated the temple of Salus when (he was) dictator; L. 10, 1, 9.

6. Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive implied in them:

Ad tuam ipsius amicitiam, to your own friendship. Nomen meum absentis, my name in my absence.

7. Locatives admit appositives in the Locative Ablative, with or without a preposition:

Albae constiterunt in urbe opportuna, they halted at Alba, a convenient city; C. Ph. 4, 2. Corinthi, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia; T. H. 2, 1.

- 8. Predicate nouns are most frequent with sum and a few intransitive verbs, ēvādō, exsistō, appāreō, and the like, and with passive verbs of Appointing, Making, Naming, Regarding, and the like.
- 9. Predicate nouns are used, not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Orestem se esse dīxit, he said that he was Orestes. Declaratus rex Numa, Numa having been declared king. Caninio consule, Caninius being consul.

10. In the poets, predicate nouns are used with verbs of a great variety of signification:

Rexque paterque audīstī, you have been called both king and father (have heard yourself so called); II. E. 1, 7, 87. Ego quae divom incēdo rēgina, I who walk as queen of the gods; V. 1, 46.

11. The Dative of the object for which (433), pro with the Ablative, and loco or numero (or in numero) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to predicate nouns:

Malð est hominibus avāritia, avarice is an evil to men (is to men for an evil). Sicilia nöbīs prō aerāriō fuit, Sicily was a treasury (for a treasury) for us. Deōrum numerō eōs dūcunt, they consider them as gods (in the number of).

12. For the Predicate Accusative, see 410, 1.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

394. Rule. — Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case:

Fortūna caeca est, Fortune is blind. Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, true friendships are enduring. Ūsus magister est optimus, Experience is the best teacher. Haec aurea vāsa, these golden vessels. Sol oriēns diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Certum est liberos amārī, it is certain that children are loved.

1. Demonstratives and participles are adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as haec vāsa, sõl oriēns.

- 2. Remember that in the passive forms of the verb the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 390, 391.
- ...3. For the distinction between an attributive adjective and a predicate adjective, see 383, 2.
- 4. Agreement with Clause, etc. An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as with a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc. Thus, in the last example, certum agrees with liberos amārī. When an adjective agrees with a clause, or with an Infinitive, it is always neuter, generally singular, but in poetry it is sometimes plural as in Greek:
- Ut Aenēās iactētur nota tibl, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you; V. 1, 667.
- 5. A neuter adjective used substantively sometimes supplies the place of a predicate adjective:

Cum mors sit extremum, since death is the last thing; C. Fam. 6, 21. Triste lupus stabulis, a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks; V. E. 3, 80.

6. A neuter adjective with a Genitive is often used in poetry and in late prose, rarely in Caesar and Cicero, instead of an adjective with its noun; especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Mirātur strāta viārum, 1 he admires the paved streets; V. 1, 422. Corruptus vānīs rērum, deluded by vain things; II. S. 2, 2. Cuncta terrārum subācta, all lands subdued; II. 2, 1, 23.

7. Sometimes, though chiefly in poetry, the adjective or participle conforms to the real meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certare parati, a part (some) prepared to contend; V. 5, 108. Absente nobis (= me), in my absence; T. Eun. 649. Demosthenes cum ceteris erant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished; N. 19, 2.

8. Agreement with One Noun for Another.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns sometimes agrees with the other, especially in poetry and late prose:

Māiōra rērum initia, the beginning of greater things; L. 1, 1. Ad iūstī cursum amnis, to the regular course of the river; L. 1, 4.

9. In poetry an adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit sē dextra, she shows herself favorable; V. 2, 388.

395. An adjective or participle, belonging in sense to two or more nouns, may agree with one and be understood with the others, or it may agree with them all conjointly:

¹ Strāta viārum, poetical for strātās viās.

Dubităre visus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt; C. Or. 1, 62. Temerităs ignoratioque vitiosa est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Castor et Pollux ex equis pugnăre visi sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback; C. N. D. 2, 2.

1. An attributive adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun; a predicate adjective less frequently:

Agri omnës et maria, all lands and seas; C. Tusc. 1, 28. Huic Hyperidës proximus et Aeschinës fuit, next to him were Hyperides and Aeschines; C. Brut. 9, 36.

2. A plural adjective or participle used with two or more nouns of different genders is generally masculine, when the nouns denote living beings, or are in a manner personified, otherwise generally neuter, used substantively; see 394, 5:

Pater mihi et mäter mortul sunt, my father and mother are dead; cf. T. Eun. 517. Rëx rëgiaque classis 1 profecti, the king and the royal fleet set out. Honorës, imperia, victoriae fortulta sunt, honors, commands, and victories are accidental things; C. Off. 2, 6. Inimica inter së sunt libera civitäs et rëx, a free state and a king are things hostile to each other. Labor voluptäsque, dissimillima nätürä, inter së sunt iüncta, labor and pleasure, things most unlike by nature, are joined together.

Note. — Moreover, with nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is sometimes neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Stultitia et temeritäs et iniüstitia sunt fugienda, folly, rashness, and injustice are things to be avoided; cf. C. Fin. 3, 11.

- 3. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun: prīma et vīcēsima legionēs, the first and twentieth legions.
- 4. In the same manner two or more praenomina, personal names, in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural: Gnaeus et Püblius Scīpionēs, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio.
 - 5. For Roman names, see 354, 3.

AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS

396. Rule. — Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person:

Nēmō est quī tē nōn metuat, there is no one who does not fear you. Graecī rēbus istīs, quās nōs contemnimus, dēlectantur, the Greeks are delighted with those things which we despise. Nihil agis quod ego nōn videam,

¹ Here regia classis is in a manner personified, as it represents the soldiers who manned the fleet.

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you do nothing which I do not see. Ego quī tē cōnfīrmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I who encouraged you am not able to encourage myself. Vīs est in virtūtibus; eās excitā, there is strength in virtues; arouse them.

1. When the antecedent is a determinative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative takes the person of the latter:

Haec is feel qui sodalis Dolabellae eram, I who was the companion of Dolabella did this; C. Fam. 12, 14.

2. Pronouns which have predicate nouns associated with them generally agree by attraction with those nouns:

Animal quem¹ vocāmus hominem, the animal which we call man; C. Leg. 1, 7. Thēbae quod¹ Boeōtiae caput est, Thebes which is the capital of Boeotia; L. 42, 44. Ea¹ erat cōnfessiō, that (the fact stated) was an admission; L. 1, 45.

Note. — Pronouns are not usually attracted when they are neuter and stand in a negative sentence nor when the predicate noun is a foreign proper name:

Nec sopor illud erat, nor was that sleep; V. 8, 178. Flümen quod appellätur Tamesis, a river which is called the Thames; Cass. 5, 11.

- 3. Pronouns, when used as adjectives, conform, of course, to the ordinary rule for adjectives; see 394.
- 397. Synesis.—The Pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent without regard to grammatical form, and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Equitatum praemittit quī videant, etc., he sends forward his cavalry to see, etc.; Caes. 1, 15. Earum rērum utrumque, each of these things; C. Div. 1, 52. Quia fessum mīlitem habēbat, ils quiētem dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them rest. Dēmocritum omittamus; nihil est enim apud istos, let us omit Democritus; for there is nothing in the works of such.

398. Two or More Antecedents. — When a pronoun refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest, or the most important:

Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs, quārum² Rōmae templa sunt, Piety, Virtue, and Faith, whose temples are at Rome; C. Leg. 2, 11. Praeter culpam ac peccātum, quā² semper carēbis, except fault and error, from which you will ever be free; C. Fam. 5, 21.

¹ Quem attracted from quod to agree with hominem: quod attracted from quae to agree with caput, and ea from id to agree with confessio.

² Quārum agrees with Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs, conjointly; quā with culpam, the more important.

1. With antecedents differing in gender, the pronoun conforms to the rule for adjectives, being generally masculine if the antecedents denote persons, otherwise neuter; see 395, 2:

Lătona et Apollo et Diana, quorum divinum domicilium compilavit, Latona, Apollo, and Diana, whose divine abode he pillaged; C. Ver. 5, 72. Inconstantia et temeritas, quae digna non sunt deo, inconstancy and rashness, which are things not worthy of a god; cf. C. N. D. 3, 24.

2. With antecedents differing in person, the pronoun conforms to the rule for verbs, preferring the first person to the second and the second to the third, see 392, 2:

Errāstis et tū et collēgae tuī quī spērāstis, both you and your colleagues who hoped, have made a mistake; C. Agr. 1, 7.

- 399. Relative Construction. Originally the relative was a pronominal adjective in agreement with the antecedent repeated in the relative clause, as itinera duo, quibus itineribus, two ways, by which ways. Generally the antecedent is retained in the principal clause and omitted in the relative clause, but sometimes it is retained in the relative clause and omitted in the principal clause, and sometimes it is omitted in both. Hence the following forms:
 - 1. Antecedent in both clauses:

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus domo exire possent, there were two ways by which they were able to go from home; Caes. 1, 6.

- 2. Antecedent omitted in the relative clause, the usual construction:
- Marius qui Italiam obsidione liberavit, Marius who freed Italy from siege.
- 3. Antecedent omitted in the principal clause, but retained in the relative clause. In this construction the relative clause in classical prose generally stands first:

In quem egressi sunt locum, Troia vocatur, the place where (into which) they landed is called Troy; L. 1, 1. Quam quisque norit artem, in hac se exerceat, let every one practice the art which he knows; C. Tusc. 1, 18, 41.

4. Antecedent omitted in both clauses. This is common when the antecedent is indefinite, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui censeant, there are some who think. Vestra, qui cum integritate vixistis, hoc interest, this interests you who have lived uprightly; C. Sull. 28, 79. Servili tumultu, quos, etc., in the revolt of the slaves whom, etc.; Caes. 1, 40.

Note. — In the second example, the antecedent of quī is a personal pronoun implied in **vestrā**, and in the last example the antecedent of quōs is servō-rum implied in servīlī, of the slaves.

5. Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and in poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative:

Notante iudice, quo ¹ nosti, when the judge whom you know reprimands; H. S. 1, 6, 14. Urbem, ¹ quam statuo, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours: V. 1, 573.

6. Clause as Antecedent. — When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun is in the neuter singular, but the relative generally adds 1d as an appositive to such antecedent:

Rēgem, quod numquam anteā acciderat, necāvērunt, they put their king to death, which had never before happened; C. Off. 2, 23. Sin ā vöbīs, id quod non spēro, dēserar, but if I should be deserted by you, which I do not expect; C. Rosc. A. 4, 10.

USE OF CASES

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES. - NOMINATIVE AND VOCATIVE

400. Cases, in accordance with their general meaning and use, naturally arrange themselves in pairs, as follows:

T ∫ Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
$\textbf{I.} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \textbf{Nominative,} \\ \textbf{Vocative,} \end{matrix} \right.$	Case of the Person Addressed.
$\mathbf{II.} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \mathbf{Accusative,} \\ \mathbf{Dative,} \end{matrix} \right.$	Case of the Direct Object.
Dative,	Case of the Indirect Object.
TTT Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
III. $\begin{cases} Genitive, \\ Ablative, \end{cases}$	Case of Adverbial Relations.

Note. — The Nominative, Vocative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative have probably retained, with very slight modifications, their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived. For the Ablative, see 459.

NOMINATIVE

- 401. The Nominative is used as follows:
 - 1. As Subject of the Sentence; see 382, 1; 387.
 - 2. As Appositive to another Nominative; see 393.
 - 3. As Predicate Nominative; see 393.
 - 4. In Exclamations; see 421, 3.

¹ Quo attracted from quem into the case of the antecedent; urbem attracted from urbs into the case of the relative.

VOCATIVE. — CASE OF ADDRESS

402. Rule. — The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, the kingdom is yours, Servius. Quid est, Catilīna, quod tē dēlectāre possit, what is there, Catiline, which can please you? \overline{O} dī immortālēs, O immortal gods.

- 1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.
- 2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people; L. 1, 24.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab oris exspectate venis, from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? V. 2, 282. Iane libentius audis, you prefer to be called Janus?; H. S. 2, 6, 20. Macte nova virtute, a blessing on your new valor. V. 9, 641.

ACCUSATIVE

403. The Accusative is used as follows:

- 1. As Direct Object; see 404.
- 2. As Direct Object and Predicate; see 410.
- 3. As Double Object Person and Thing; see 411.
- 4. As Direct Object with Infinitive; see 414.
- 5. As Subject of Infinitive; see 415.
- 6. As Accusative of Specification; see 416.
- 7. As Accusative of Time, Space, and Limit; see 417, 418.
- 8. With Prepositions and in Exclamations; see 420, 421.

Accusative as Direct Object

404. Rule. — The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Marius Ītaliam līberāvit, Marius freed Italy. Populī Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, defend the safety of the Roman people. Rōmulus Rōman condi-

¹ But populus Albānus may be a Nominative form with the Vocative meaning following the analogy of all nouns and adjectives except those in us; see 75, 1.

² Or, you more g'adly hear yourself called Janus.

⁸ Supply estő. Literally be enlarged by your new valor. In this expression, macte has become so far indeclinable that it is used in the Accusative singular and in the plural.

dit, Romulus founded Rome. Librum de rebus rusticis scripsi, I wrote a book on rural affairs.

- 1. The Direct Object may be either the Person or Thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as **Ītaliam** and **salūtem** above, or the Result of the action, the object produced by it, as **Rōmam** and librum.
- 2. Passive Construction.—In the passive construction, the noun or pronoun which is the direct object of the active becomes the Subject Nominative:

Laudant exquisitissimis verbis legiones, they praise the legions with the choicest words. Laudantur exquisitissimis verbis legiones, the legions are praised with the choicest words; C. Ph. 4, 3, 6.

3. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as a direct object:

Vērum audire non vult, he does not wish to hear the truth. Quis sim scies, you will know who I am.

- 4. The object of a transitive verb is often omitted when it can be easily supplied: moveo = moveo me, I move; vertit = vertit se, he turns.
- 405. Special Verbs. Note the use of the Accusative with the following special verbs, many of which admit other constructions, as the Dative or the Ablative with or without dē. Thus:
- 1. With verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell; as desperare, to despair, to despair of; dolere, to grieve, to grieve for; gemere, to sigh, to sigh over; horrere, to shudder, to shudder at; maerere, to mourn, to mourn over; mirari, to wonder, to wonder at; ridere, to laugh, to laugh at; sitire, to thirst, to thirst after; olere, redolere, to have an odor, to have the odor of; sapere, to have taste, to have the taste of:

Meum cāsum doluērunt, they mourned over my misfortune; C. Sest. 69, 145. Pācem dēspērāvī, I despaired of peace; C. Att. 7, 20. Dētrīmenta rīdet, he laughs at losses; II. E. 2, 1, 121. Orātionēs redolentēs antiquitātem, orations savoring of antiquity; C. Brut. 21, 82.

Note. — Dolēre takes the Accusative or the Ablative with or without de; despērāre, the Accusative, the Dative, or the Ablative with de; olēre and redolēre, the Accusative or Ablative: delicto dolēre, to grieve over a fault; salūtī or de salūte despērāre, to despair of safety; sibi despērāre, to despair of oneself; redolēre thymo, to have the odor of thyme.

2. With a few other verbs; as durare, to grow hard, to make hard; suppeditare, to abound, to furnish bountifully; tacere, to be silent, to pass over in silence:

Ego multa tacui, I have passed over many things in silence; C. C. 4, 1, 2.

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3. Several impersonal verbs admit the Accusative; as decet, it befits; dedecet, it does not befit; invat, it pleases; fallit, fugit, praeterit, it escapes:

Orātorem Irāscī minimē decet, it by no means becomes an orator to be angry. Nisi mē fallit, unless it escapes me, unless I mistake.

 Miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget take the Accusative and Genitive; see 457.

Note. — Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitive in Latin, and thus admit only an Indirect Object or some special construction; see 426.

406. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with circum, per, praeter, trāns, and super, take the Accusative:

Mutinam circumsedent, they are besieging Mutina. Murmur contionem pervasit, a murmur went through the assembly. Pyrenaeum transgreditur, he crosses the Pyrenees. Undam innatat alnus, the boat floats upon the stream; V. G. 2, 451. Tela modo exit, he only avoids the blows; V. 5, 488.

407. In poetry, rarely in prose, a few verbs, chiefly those of Clothing and Unclothing, — induō, exuō, cingō, accingō, etc., — are sometimes used reflexively in the passive, like the Greek Middle Voice, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet; V. 2, 892. Inūtile ferrum cingitur, he girds on his useless sword; V. 2, 510. Puerī suspēnsī loculõs lacertō, boys with satchels hung upon the arm; H. S. 1, 6, 78. Pāscuntur silvās, they browse upon the forests; V. G. 8, 314. Iūnō necdum antīquum saturāta dolōrem, Juno not yet having appeased her old resentment; V. 5, 608.

408. Verbal Adjectives and, in Plautus, a few Verbal Nouns occur with the Accusative:

Vitābundus castra hostium, avoiding the camp of the enemy; L. 25, 18. Quid tibi hanc cūrātiōst rem (cūrātiōst = cūrātiō est), why do you care for this? Pl. Amph. 519.

409. Cognate Accusative. — Even Intransitive verbs admit the Accusative of an object of cognate or kindred meaning, generally with an adjective or other modifier:

Tütam vītam vīvere, to lead a secure life; C. Ver. 2, 47. Cönsimilem lüserat ille lüdum, he had played a similar game; T. Eun. 586. Nēmō servitūtem servīvit, no one lived in servitude; C. Top. 6, 29.

 Note the following use of neuter pronouns and adjectives in a kindred sense:

Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes; C. N. D. 1, 12. Idem glöriärī, to make the same boast; C. Sen. 10. Hōc puerī possunt, have the boys this power? C. Tusc. 2, 14.

2. Note the following poetical constructions:

Pügnāvit proelia, he fought battles; H. 4, 9. Võx hominem sonat, the voice sounds human; V. 1, 328. Coronari Olympia, to be crowned with the Olympic crown; H. E. 1, 1, 50.

Two Accusatives of the Same Person

410. Rule.—Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing:

Hamilcarem imperătorem fēcērunt, they made Hamilcar commander; N. 22, 2. Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, the people made Ancus king; L. 1, 82. Summum consilium appellarunt senātum, they called their highest council a senate; ct. C. Sen. 6. Cato Flaccum habuit collēgam, Cato had Flaccus as a colleague; N. 24, 1.

1. Predicate Accusative. — One of these two Accusatives is the Direct Object and the other a Predicate Accusative. In the passive the direct object of the active becomes the subject Nominative and the predicate Accusative becomes the predicate Nominative:

Populus Romanus consulem me fecit, the Roman people made me consul. Consul factus sum, I was made consul.

2. Habēre, to have, admits two Accusatives, as in the fourth example under the rule, but when it means to regard, it usually takes, instead of the predicate Accusative, the Dative, the Ablative with in or prō, or the Genitive with locō, numerō. or in numerō:

Paupertas probro haberi coepit, the absence of wealth began to be regarded as a disgrace; S. C. 12. Sese illum non pro amico, sed hoste habiturum, that he should regard him, not as a friend, but as an enemy; Caes. 1, 44. Reductos in hostium numero habuit, he regarded them as enemies, when brought back.

Note. — These constructions are also used with other verbs meaning to regard.

3. The Predicate Accusative is often an adjective:

Ipsos caecos reddit avaritia, avarice makes them blind; cf. C. Rose. A. 35.

Two Accusatives — Person and Thing

411. Rule. — Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit Two Accusatives — one of the Person and one of the Thing:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion; C. Q. Fr. 2, 1. Pācem tē pōscimus, we demand peace from you; V, 11. 362. Philosophia nōs rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things; cf. C. Leg. 1, 22. Nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I did not conceal the conversation from you; C. Fam. 2, 16.

1. In the passive the Person becomes the subject and the Accusative of the Thing is retained:

Rogātus ego sententiam multa dīxī, having been asked my opinion I stated many things; C. Att. 1, 16. Omnēs militiae artēs ēdoctus fuerat, he had been taught all the arts of war; L. 25, 87. Id cēlārī non potuit, he could not be kept ignorant of this; N. 7, 5, 2.

- 2. Two Accusatives are generally used with celo, doceo, edoceo; often with rogo, posco, reposco, and sometimes with dedoceo, exposco, flagito; consulo, interrogo, percontor, etc.
- 3. Instead of the Accusative of the Thing verbs of Asking or Questioning generally take the Ablative with d5, c5l5 sometimes takes the Ablative with d5, and doce5 and 5doce5 the Ablative with or without d5, an Infinitive or a clause:

Quem ego interrogem de turibulis, whom I may question about the censers. Me de hoc libro celavit, he kept me ignorant of this book. De sua re me docet, he informs me in regard to his case. Litteris Graecis doctus, instructed in Greek literature. Socratem fidibus docuit, he taught Socrates to play on the lyre; C. Fam. 9, 22. Te nihil sapere docuit, he taught you to know nothing.

4. Quaerō, to ask, and verbs of Imploring and Demanding generally take the Accusative of the Thing and the Ablative of the Person with ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex. In the passive the thing becomes the subject and the Ablative of the person is retained:

Quaerit ex solo ea, etc., he asks him in private (from him alone) about those things; Caes. 1, 18. Pacem a vobis petimus, we implore peace from you; L. 6, 26. Id ab eo flagitabatur, this was earnestly demanded of him.

412. The Accusative of a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective occurs in connection with a direct object with many verbs which otherwise seldom, if ever, take two Accusatives:

Hoc të hortor, I give you this exhortation; C. C. 1, 5. Ea monemur, we are admonished of these things; cf. C. Am. 24. Numquid aliud me vis? do you wish anything else of me? Illud të oro, that I ask of you.

1. In rare instances, $\delta r \delta$, mone δ and its compounds admit a noun as the Accusative of the thing \cdot

Auxilia regem orabant, they asked auxiliaries of the king; L. 28, 5. Eam rem nos locus admonuit, the place reminded us of that event; 8. 79, 1.

413. A few compounds of trans, and in rare instances of circum and practer, admit two Accusatives in the active and one in the passive:

Copias flumen traduxit, he led his forces across the river; L. 22, 45. Praetervehor ostia Pantagiae, I am carried past the mouth of the Pantagias; V. 8, 688.

Accusative and Infinitive

414. Rule. — Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Ut doceam Rullum tacere, that I may teach Rullus to be silent; C. Agr. 8, 2. Edocuit gentem casus aperire futuros, he taught the race to disclose future events. Sentimus calere ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Regem tradunt se abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself; L. 1, 31.

- 1. In these examples observe that docuit and ēdocuit admit two Accusatives and that the Infinitive here simply takes the place of one Accusative; that Rullum and gentem are the objects of the finite verbs; that Ignem, in the third example, may be explained either as the object of sentīmus or as the subject of the Infinitive, calēre, we perceive fire to be hot or that fire is hot; and that the Accusative rēgem in the last example is plainly the subject of the Infinitive, abdidisse, that the king concealed himself. These examples illustrate the development of the subject of the Infinitive out of the direct object of the principal verb. Hence we have the following rule.
- 415. Rule. Subject of Infinitive. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Platōnem ferunt in Italiam vēnisse, they report that Plato came into Italy; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39. Civitātis sapientissimum Solōnem dīcunt fuisse, they say that Solon was the wisest man of the state.

Accusative of Specification

416. Rule.—In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application:

Nübe umerõs amictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud; H. 1, 2, 31. Mīles frāctus membra labore, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs); H. S. 1, 1, 5. Aenēās ōs deō similis, Aeneas like a god in countenance; V. 1, 589.

- This Accusative sometimes concurs with the Poetic Accusative after passive verbs used reflexively. Thus umeros above may be explained either as an Accusative of Specification or as the object of amictus used reflexively; see 407.
- 2. The Accusative is often used in an adverbial sense, developed largely from the Accusative of Specification and the Cognate Accusative, as multum, plūrimum, cētera, reliqua, etc.; partem, vicem, nihil, secus, aliquid, hōc, illud, id, etc.; id aetātis, of that age; id temporis, at that time:

Cetera ignārus populi Romāni, in other respects ignorant of the Roman people; 8. 19, 7. Māximam partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk; Caes. 4, 1. Id hominibus id aetātis imponitur, that is placed upon men of that age, i.e. of that time in life; C. Or. 1, 47, 207. Locus id temporis vacuus, a place at that time vacant; C. Fin. 5, 1.

3. Id genus, omne genus, and the like, apparently in the sense of **Sius** generis, omnis generis, etc., are probably best explained as appositives:

Aliquid id genus scribere, to write something of this kind (something, viz. this kind).

Accusative of Time and Space

417. Rule. — Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven years; L. 1, 21, 6. Catō annōs quīnque et octōgintā nātus excessit ē vītā, Cato died at the age of (having been born) eighty-five years. Septingenta mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk seven hundred miles. Aggerem altum pedēs octōgintā exstrūxērunt, they erected a mound eighty feet high.

- 1. Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Accusative with **per**: Per annos viginti certatum est, the contest was carried on for twenty years.
- 2. Duration of Time sometimes so far coincides with time in or within which (487) that it is expressed by the Ablative:

Pügnātum est hōrīs quinque, the battle was fought five hours, or in five hours; cf. Caes. C. 1, 46.

3. Distance regarded as Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative as in the third and fourth examples, but regarded as the Measure of Difference (479) it is expressed by the Ablative. Moreover, the Ablative of Distance sometimes takes **ā**, or ab:

Milibus passuum sex à Caesaris castris consédit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp; Caes. 1, 45. Ab milibus passuum dubbus castra posuérunt, they pitched their camp two miles of (at or from the distance of two miles); Caes. 2, 7, 3.

4. In expressions of age with maior or minor, the Accusative may be used with natus or the Ablative with or without natus.

Măior annos sexăgintă nătus, more than sixty years old; N. 21, 2. Minor quinque et viginti annis nătus, less than twenty-fire years old; N. 23, 3. Măior annis quinquăgintă, more than fifty years of age; L. 42, 83.

Limit of Motion

418. Rule. — The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with ad or in, but in names of Towns by the Accusative alone: 1

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or towards the city, C. Ph. 7, 1. Hannibal exercitum in Italiam duxit, Hannibal led an army into Italy. Missi legati Athenas sunt, ambassadors were sent to Athens, L. 3, 31. Reditus Romam, a return to Rome. Carthaginem Novam in hiberna Hannibal concessit, Hannibal retired into winter quarters at (lit. to) New Carthage; L. 21, 15.

- 1. The last example illustrates the fact that when a verb of motion takes two nouns denoting the limit of motion, both nouns must be in the Accusative, even when the English idiom requires the use of at or in, in translating one of them: into winter quarters at New Carthage; Latin idiom, to New Carthage into winter quarters.
- 2. Urbs or oppidum, with in, may stand before the name of a town, but if accompanied by a modifier, it regularly stands, with or without in, after such name:

Pervenit in oppidum Cirtam, he came into the town Cirta; S. 102. Se contulit Tarquinios, in urbem Etruriae, he betook himself to Tarquinii, a city of Etruria; ct. C. R. P. 2, 19. Capuam colonia deducetur, urbem amplissimam, a colony will be conducted to Capua, a very spacious city; C. Agr. 2, 28.

3. By a Latin idiom, verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc., — cogo, convoco, congrego, contraho, convenio, advenio, pervenio, etc.,—are usually treated as verbs of Motion and accordingly take the Accusa-

¹ Originally the Limit of Motion was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

tive, with or without a preposition. On the contrary, verbs meaning to place, —locō, collocō, pōnō, statuō, cōnstituō, etc., — are usually treated as verbs of Rest, and accordingly take the Ablative (483), generally with a preposition:

Omnes in unum locum copias cogere, to collect all the forces in one place; Caes. 6, 10. Omnes unum in locum conveniunt, they all assemble in one place. Romam Italia tota conveniu, all Italy assembled at Rome. Spem salutis in virtute ponebant, they all placed their hope of safety in their valor; Caes. 5, 34.

4. In the names of towns the Accusative with ad is used in the sense of to, towards, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and in contrast with a, or ab:

Trēs viae sunt ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina; C. Ph. 12, 9. Ad Zamam pervēnit, he came into the vicinity of Zama; S. 57. Ab Diāniō ad Sinōpēn nāvigāvērunt, they sailed from Dianium to Sinope; C. Ver. 1, 34, 87.

- 419. Like names of towns, the following Accusatives are used without prepositions:
 - 1. Regularly domum, domos, rus, and Supines in um:

Domum reductus est, he was conducted home; C. Am. 3, 12. Alius alium domos suās invitant, they invite each other to their homes; S. 66, 3. Domum reditio, a return home; cf. Caes. 1, 5. Ego rūs ībō, I shall go into the country; T. Eun. 216. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him; Caes. 1, 30.

Note. — A possessive, or a Genitive of the possessor, may accompany domum and domos, as domum Caesaris, to Caesar's house; domos suās, to their homes. With other modifiers a preposition is regularly used, as in illam domum, into that house.

2. Sometimes the Accusative of names of Islands and Peninsulas, and even of Countries:

Lătona confügit Delum, Latona fled to Delos; cf. C. Ver. 1, 18. Miltiades pervenit Chersonesum, Miltiades went to the Chersonesus; N. 1, 1. Dicitur Aegyptum profügisse, he is said to have fled to Egypt; C. N. D. 8, 22.

3. In poetry and late prose, the preposition is often omitted before the names of Countries and Nations and sometimes even before common nouns:

Ītaliam vēnit, he came to Italy; V. 1, 2. Nos ībimus Āfros, we shall go to the Africans; V. E. 1, 65. Lāvīna vēnit lītora, he came to the Lavinian shores; V. 1, 2. Ille īnfitiās ībit, he is going to deny it (to a denial of it); T. Ad. 889.

4. A Poetical Dative occurs for the Accusative:

It clamor caelo, the shout ascends to Heaven; V. 5, 451. Dum inferret deos Latio, while he was carrying his gods to Latium; V. 1, 6. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Avernus; V. 6, 126.

Note. — See also Dative in Poetry and late Prose, 428.

Accusative with Prepositions

420. Rule. — The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Scrībam ad tē, I shall write to you. Ad tē ante lūcem veniet, he will come to you before light. Īnsula contrā Brundisium est, the island is opposite Brundisium. Post mē erat Aegīna, behind me was Aegina. Īnsulae propter Siciliam, the islands near Sicily. Secundum nātūram vīvere, to live in accordance with nature.

- 1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: ad urbem, to the city; in urbem, into the city; per urbem, through the city; post urbem, behind the city; prope urbem, near the city.
 - 2. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative alone:

ad,	to	contrā,	opposite	pōne,	behind
adversus,)	opposite	${f ergar a},$	towards	post,	be hin d
adversum,	орровие	extrā,	outside	praeter,	beyond
ante,	befo re	īnfrā,	below	prope,	near
apud,	near, at	inter,	among	propter,	on account of
circā, ۲	around	intrā,	inside	secundum,	next after
circum, }		iūxtā,	near	suprā,	above
circiter,	about	ob,	on account of	trāns,	across
$\left. egin{array}{l} ext{cis,} \\ ext{citr$ ilde{a},} \end{array} ight\}$	on this side	penes,	in power of	ultrā,	beyond
		per,	through	versus,	towards

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

in, into, in subter, heneath, under, towards sub, under super, above, about, beyond

in and sub with the Accusative after verbs of motion; subter and super generally with the Accusative:

Hannibal exercitum in Italiam düxit, Hannibal led an army into Italy; N. 23, 3. Sub montem succedunt, they approached towards the mountain. Subter mūros hostium āvehitur, he is borne under the walls of the enemy. Super Numidiam esse, to be beyond Numidia; S. 19, 5.

Note. — For the Ablative with these four prepositions, see 490, 3.

4. Prepositions were originally adverbs (312, 1) and many of them are still used as adverbs in classical authors:

Ad mīlibus quattuor, about four thousand. Legiō iūxtā constiterat, the legion had taken a stand near by. Prope ā Siciliā, not far (near) from Sicily. Suprā, Infrā mundos esse, that there are worlds above and below.

5. Conversely, several words which are generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions and are used with the Accusative: propius, nearer; proximē, nearest; prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; clam, clanculum, without the knowledge of; ūsque, as far as, even to:

Propius periculum, nearer to danger; L. 21, 1, 2. Quam proxime Italiam, as near as possible to Italy; C. Ph. 10, 11. Pridie eum diem, the day before that day; C. Att. 11, 23. Postridie lūdos, the day after the games; C. Att. 16. 4. Clam patrem, without father's knowledge; T. Hec. 396. Ūsque pedes, even to the feet; Curt. 8, 9.

Note. — For the rare use of the Ablative after clam, see 490, 4.

Accusative in Exclamations

421. Rule. — The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, Ah me unhappy¹; C. Ph. 7, 4. Mē miserum, me miserable¹; C. Att. 9, 6. \overline{O} fallācem spem, O deceptive hope. Prō deōrum fidem, in the name of the gods.²

- 1. An adjective or a Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.
- Instead of the Accusative, the Vocative may be used when an Address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Infēlix Dido, unhappy Dido.

3. The Nominative may be used when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

En dextra fidesque, lo the right hand and the plighted faith; V. 4, 597. Ecce tuae litterae, lo your letter; C. Att. 18, 16, 1.

4. The Ethical Dative is used in exclamations after e1, vae, ecce, and a few other interjections; see 432:

Ei mihi, quid faciam, woe to me, what shall I do? T. Ad. 789.

¹ See Milton, Paradise Lost, IV. 73.

² Some of the Accusatives found in exclamations are readily explained as the object of omitted verbs, while others may be the survival of rude unfinished sentences from a primitive age.

DATIVE

422. The Dative is used as follows:

- 1. As Indirect Object General Use; see 424.
- 2. With Special Verbs; see 426
- 3. With Certain Compound Verbs; see 429.
- 4. As Possessor; see 430.
- 5. As Apparent Agent; see 431.
- 6. As Ethical Dative; see 432.
- 7. As Indirect Object and Predicate; see 433.
- 8. With Adjectives; see 434.
- 9. With Special Nouns and Adverbs; see 436.

Indirect Object

423. The Indirect Object designates the Person To or For Whom, or the Thing To or For Which, anything is or is done.

Dative with Verbs

424. Rule. — The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object:

Mundus Deō pāret, the world is subject to God. Tibǐ seris, tibǐ metēs, for yourself you sow, for yourself you will reap. Ego Caesarī supplicābō, I shall supplicate Caesar. Pecūniae serviunt, they are slaves to money. Vīta vōbīs data est, life has been granted to you; C. Ph. 14, 12.

Mīlitibus sīgnum dedit, he gave the signal to the soldiers. Tibī grātiās agimus, we give you thanks. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, nature reconciles man to man. Legēs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, they wrote laws for their states; C. Leg. 2, 6.

- 1. The Indirect Object generally designates a Person, or something Personified, as in the examples.
- 2. The Dative of the Indirect Object must be distinguished from the Accusative, with or without a preposition, denoting the Limit of Motion, and from the Ablative with prō, meaning for, in defense of, in behalf of. Compare the following examples:

Patriam nobis reddidistis, you have restored our country to us. Missi legati Athenas sunt, envoys were sent to Athens. Convenit dimicare propatria, it is seemly to fight for one's country.

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3. The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict literal meaning of the verb: nūbō, to marry (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bridegroom); medeor, to cure (to administer a remedy to):

Venus nūpsit Vulcānō, Venus married Vulcan; C. N. D. 3, 23.

- 425. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be
- 1. The Dative of Influence, generally designating the Person To Whom, sometimes the Thing To Which, something is or is done:

Civitatibus libertatem reddidit, he restored liberty to the states.

Here belong most of the examples under the rule.

2. The Dative of Interest, designating the Person For Whom something is done:

Non nobis solum nati sumus, we were not born for ourselves alone. Non solum nobis divites esse volumus, sed liberis, we wish to be rich, not for ourselves alone, but for our children; C. Off. 8, 15.

3. The Dative of Purpose or End, designating the Object or End For Which something is or is done:

Receptui cecinit, he gave the signal for a retreat; cf. L. 34, 39. Non scholae sed vitae discimus, we learn, not for the school, but for life; Sen. Ep. 105.

4. The Dative of Relation, designating the Person In Relation To Whom, or In Reference To Whom, something is or is done:

Tū illī pater es, you are a father to him; T. Ad. 126. Trīduī iter expeditis erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers; L. 9, 9. Est urbe ēgressīs tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city (to those having [= who have] gone out of the city); V. 2, 712.

NOTE. — A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending on a noun:

Sese Caesari ad pedes proiecerunt, they threw themselves at the feet of Caesar; Caes. 1, 31. Urbī fundāmenta iecī, I laid the foundations of (for) the city; L. 1, 12. Mihī horror membra quatit, a shudder shakes my limbs; V. 3, 29.

- 426. With Special Verbs. The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus,
- 1. With verbs meaning to please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, benefit or injure, favor or oppose, trust or distrust, and the like:

¹ Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus Dīvitēs esse volumus is complete in itself.

Ego numquam mihl placui, I have never pleased myself; C. Or. 2, 4, 15. Crūdēlitās ei displicēbat, cruelty was displeasing to him. Imperat aut servit pecūnia cuique, money rules (commands) or serves every one; H. E. 1, 10, 47. Deō oboediunt maria, the seas obey God. Non licet nocēre alteri, it is not lawful to injure another. Omnēs nobilitāti favēmus, we all regard nobility with favor. Diffidēbant Servilio, they were distrusting Servilius.

Note 1.—A few verbs of this class take the Accusative: laedo, rego, etc. Note 2.—Here may be mentioned the use of the Dative with facio and dico accompanied by satis, bene, or male:

Mihl numquam satis facio, I never satisfy myself; C. Fam. 1, 1. Di tibl bene faciant, may the gods bless you; T. Ad. 917. Male dicebat tibl, he slandered you; C. Deiot. 12, 33.

Note 3. — For fido and confido with the Ablative, see 476, 3.

2. With verbs meaning to indulge, aid, spare, pardon, believe, persuade, flatter, threaten, envy, be angry, and the like:

Indulgēbat sibl, he indulged himself. Nūllīus pepercit vitae, he spared the life of no one. Caesar Ignovit omnibus, Caesar pardoned all. Mihl crēde, believe me. Facile Nervils persuādet, he casily persuades the Nervil. Huic imperio minitābantur, they were threatening this government. Probus invidet nēminī, the upright man envies no one.

Note. — Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: delecto, iuvo, etc.

3. The Impersonal Passive of verbs which take only an Indirect Object in the active retains the Dative:

No min'i noceant, that they may not injure me; C. C. 3, 12. Min'i nihil noceri potest, no injury can be done to me; C. C. 3, 12.

4. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Hunc tū cavētō, be on your guard against this one; II. S. 1, 4, 85. Foedus rēgī cavet, the treaty provides for the king; C. Agr 2, 22. Deum cōnsuluit, he consulted the god. Vōbīs cōnsulite, consult (take measures) for yourselves. Perfidiam timēmus, we fear perfidy. Legiōnibus timēbat, he was fearing for his legions. Quis mē volt, who wishes me? T. And. 872. Tibī bene volō, I wish you well; T. Heaut. 959.

Note. — Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one; cavere alicui, to care for some one; cupere aliquid, to desire something; cupere aliquid, to wish one well; prospicere, providere aliquid, to foresee; prospicere, etc., alicui, to provide for; temperare aliquid, to govern, direct; temperare aliquid, (of things) to restrain, (of persons) to spare.

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5. With scrībō, to write, and mittō, to send, the Person may be denoted either by the Dative or by the Accusative with ad, but with nuntiō, to announce, the person is generally denoted by the Dative:

Labiëno scribit, he writes to Labienus. Scribam ad të, I shall write to you. Ea rës hostibus nuntiatur, this fact is announced to the enemy.

Note. — Dare litterās alicui generally means to deliver a letter to some one, especially to a carrier or messenger, but dare litterās ad aliquem means to address or send a letter to some one.

Litteras ad te numquam habui cui darem, I have never had any one by whom to send (lit. to whom I might deliver) a letter to you; C. Fam. 12, 19.

6. A few verbs admit the Dative of the Person and the Accusative of the Thing, or the Accusative of the Person and the Ablative of the Thing:

Praedam militibus donat, he gives the booty to the soldiers; Caes. 7, 11. Atticus Athenienses frümento donavit, Atticus presented the Athenians with grain; cf. N. 25, 2.

7. Interdīcō takes the Dative of the Person and generally the Ablative of the Thing, sometimes with dē, but the Accusative also occurs:

Omnī Galliā Romānīs interdīxit, he forbade the Romans all Gaul.

427. A Dative rendered from or with sometimes occurs where our idiom would lead us to expect the Ablative, as with verbs of Differing, Dissenting, Repelling, Taking Away, etc., and sometimes with facio, misceo, etc.

Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Sibi discrepantes, disagreeing with themselves. Populus non adimit el libertatem, the people do not take from him his civil rights; C. Caec. 34, 99. Quid huic homini facias, what are you to do with (to) this man? C. Caec. 11, 31.

- 428. Dative in Poetry. In the poets and in the late prose writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:
- 1. With verbs denoting Motion or Direction for the Accusative with ad or in:

Multos demittimus Orco, we send many down to Orcus; V. 2, 398. It clamor caelo, the shout goes to heaven; V. 5, 451.

2. With verbs denoting Separation or Difference—instead of the Ablative with ab or de. or the Accusative with inter:

Sölstitium pecori defendite, keep off the heat from the flock; V. Ec. 7, 47. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester; H. E. 1, 18. Serta capiti delapsa, garlands fallen from his head; V. Ec. 6, 16.

3. With verbs denoting Union, Comparison, Contention, and the like —instead of the Ablative with cum, or the Accusative with inter:

Fletum cruori miscuit, she mingled her tears with his blood; O. M. 4, 140. Concurrere hosti, to meet the enemy; O. M. 12, 595. Solus tibl certat, he alone contends with you; V. Ec. 5, 8. Placitone pugnabis amori, will you contend with acceptable love? V. 4, 88.

4. In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri arundo, the arrow sticks in her side; V. 4, 78. Ardet apex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head; V. 10, 270.

429. Datives with Compounds. — The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with

ađ	ante	con	đē	in	inter
ob	post	prae	prō	sub	super:

Omnibus periculis adfuit, he was present in all dangers Glöriam potentiae anteponunt, they prefer glory to power. Parva māgnīs conferuntur, small things are compared with (to) great. Hōc Caesarī dēfuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Bellum populō Rōmānō indīxit, he declared war against the Roman people. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Hominēs hominibus et prōsunt et obsunt, men both benefit and injure men. Lībertātī opēs postferēbant, they sarrificed wealth to liberty. Equitātuī Dumnorix praeerat, Dumnorix commanded the cavalry. Aetās succēdit aetātī, age succeeds age. Neque superesse reī pūblicae volō, nor do I wish to survive the republic.

- 1. Transitive verbs thus compounded take both the Accusative and the Dative, as in the second and fifth examples, and in the passive they retain the Dative, as in the third example.
- 2. Compounds of other prepositions, especially of ab, ex, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Sibl libertatem abiudicat, he condemns himself to the loss of liberty; cf. C. Caec. 84. Hunc minl timorem eripe, take away from (for) me this fear; C. C. 1, 7. Homines labore assueti, men habituated to (familiarized with) labor; C. Or. 8, 15. Dicta cum factis composuit, he compared words with deeds; 8. 48.

3. Motion, Direction. — Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition:

Hereditatem adire, to enter on an inheritance. Consulatus ad omne periculum opponitur, the consulship is exposed to every danger.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning:

Tuscus ager Rōmānō adiacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman; L. 2, 49, 9. Mare illud adiacent, they are near that sea; N. 13, 2. Quibus timor incesserat, whom fear had seized; S. C. 31. Timor patrēs incessit, fear seized the fathers; L. 1, 17.

5. Some of these compounds admit the Dative in poetry, though in classical prose the Accusative or Ablative, with or without a preposition, is more common:

Contendis Homērō, 1 you contend with Homer; Prop. 1, 7, 8. Animīs 1 illābere nostrīs, inspire (descend into) our souls; V. 3, 89.

6. Instead of the compounds of ad, ante, etc., the poets sometimes use the simple verbs with the Dative:

Qui haeserat Euandro, who had joined himself to Evander: V. 10, 780.

430. The Dative of the Possessor is used with the verb sum:

Est mihl domi pater, I have (there is to me) a father at home. Sex filli nobis sunt, we have six sons. Fonti nomen Arethusa est, the name of the (to the) fountain is Arethusa; cf. C. Ver. 4, 58.

1. The Dative of the name, as well as of the possessor, is common in expressions of naming:

Scīpiōnī Āfricānō cōgnōmen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus; cf. 8. 5, 4. Here Āfricānō, instead of being in apposition with cōgnōmen, is put by attraction in apposition with Scīpiōnī.

2. By a Greek idiom, volēns, cupiēns, or invītus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the Possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, who liked the war (to whom wishing the war was); Tac. Agr. 18.

431. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

Dicenda Mūsis proelia, battles to be sung by the muses; H. 4, 9, 21. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear; C. Off. 3, 6, 30.

¹ Prose construction, cum Homērō and in animōs,

1. Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used:

Quibus est ā võbīs¹ cõnsulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you;
C. Man. 2.

2. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of Passive Verbs:

Mihř consilium captum iam diū est, I have a plan long since formed; C. Fam. 5, 19.

3. Habeō with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mihi with the Participle:

Pecunias collocatas habent, they have moneys invested; C. Man. 7, 18. Equitatum coactum habebat, he had collected his cavalry or had his cavalry collected; Caes. 1, 15.

Note. — The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

- The Real Agent, with passive verbs, in classical prose is denoted by the Ablative with ā or ab 2; see 468.
- 5. The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (to) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, honorable things are sought by good men; C. Off. 8, 9.

6. In the poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative, with **ā** or **ab**, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Neque cernitur üllī, nor is he seen by any one; V. 1, 440. Nülla tuārum audīta mihī sorōrum, no one of your sisters has been heard by me; V. 1, 236. Rēgnāta arva Sāturnō quondam, lands formerly ruled by Saturn; V. 6, 798.

¹ Here ā vōbīs is necessary to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, quibus; but the Ablative with ā or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

² The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of the Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommodum est means every one has his trouble (cuique, Dative of Possessor) and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his trouble to bear. So, too, mihi consilium est, I have a plan; mihi consilium captum est, I have a plan (already) formed.

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432. The Ethical Dative, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence in the form of a personal pronoun:

At tibl venit ad mē, but lo, he comes to me; C. Fam. 9.2. Quō mihl abis, whither are you going, pray? V. 5, 162. Quid mihl Celsus agit, what is my Celsus doing? Quid vōbīs vultis, what do you wish or mean? Ei mihl, quid faciam, woe to me, what shall I do? T. Ad. 789.

Two Datives

433. Rule. — Two Datives, the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which, are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object:

Vöbīs honorī estis, you are an honor (for an honor) to yourselves; ct. C. Or. 1, 8, 34. Est mihī māgnae cūrae, it is of (for) great interest to me; C. Fin. 8, 2, 8. Odiō sum Rōmānīs, I am an object of hatred to the Romans; L. 35, 19, 6. Id mihī est cordī, this is pleasing (for my heart) to me; C. Am. 4, 15. Vēnit Atticīs auxiliō, he came to the assistance of the Athenians; N. 8, 3, 1. Hōc illī tribuēbātur īgnāviae, this was imputed to him as cowardice; C. Fam. 2, 16, 3.

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio relinquit, he leaves five cohorts for the defense of the camp; Caes. 7, 60. Pericles agros suos dono rei publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present; Iust. 8, 7.

- 1. The Dative of the object or end is a Predicate Dative. Thus in the first example the predicate is **honōrī estis**; see Predicate Nominative (393) and Predicate Accusative (410, 1).
- 2. The verbs which take two Datives are Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, fiō, etc., and Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: dō, dōnō, dūcō, habeō, mittō, relinquō, tribuō, vertō, etc. The latter take in the active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive; see 404, 2.
- 3. One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a Predicate Nominative:

Năvēs nullo usui fuerunt, the ships were of no use; Caes. C. 2, 7, 1. Tu illi pater es, you are a father to him; T. Ad. 126.

¹ Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut' (Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II.). 'He presently steps me a little higher' (Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.).

4. With audiēns two Datives sometimes occur, dictō dependent upon audiēns, and a personal Dative dependent upon dictō audiēns, and sometimes dictō oboediēns is used like dictō audiēns:

Nobis dicto audientes sunt, they are obedient to us; C. Ver. 5,32. Magistro dicto oboediens, obedient to his master; Pl. Bac. 489.

Dative with Adjectives

434. Rule. — Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them:

Id militibus fuit iūcundum, this was agreeable to the soldiers. Mihī difficile est dīcere, it is difficult for me to speak. Atticus amīcissimus Brūtō, Atticus most friendly to Brutus. Canis similis lupō, a dog similar to a wolf. Proximus sum egomet mihī, I am nearest of kin to myself. Locus castrīs idōneus, a place suitable for the camp. Id causae est aliēnum, this is foreign to the case. Ūniversae Graeciae ūtile, useful for all Greece. Inūtilēs sunt bellō, they are useless for war.

- 1. The Indirect Object of an Adjective, like the Indirect Object of a Verb, generally answers the question to or for whom? or to or for what? See examples.
- 2. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those meaning agreeable, dear, easy, faithful, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and with verbals in ilis and bilis.
 - 3. **Idem**, like adjectives of likeness, admits the Dative:

Non idem illis censere, not to think the same as they; cf. C. Fam. 9, 6. Idem facit occidenti, he does the same as he who kills; II. A. P. 467.

- **435.** Other constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:
- 1. The Accusative with a Preposition: in, ergā, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and ad, to denote the Object or End For Which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgëns in patrem, very kind to his father; C. Off. 8, 81. Multas ad res perutiles, very useful for many things; C. Sen. 17.

¹ Such are accommodātus, aequālis, alienus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, cārus, facilis, difficilis, fidēlis, infidēlis, fīnitimus, grātus, idōneus, iūcundus, iniūcundus, molestus, necessārius, nōtus, īgnōtus, noxius, pār, dispār, perniciosus, propinquus, proprius, salūtāris, similis, dissimilis, dīversus, vīcīnus, etc.

2. The Accusative with propior, proximus 1:

Propior monteni, nearer the mountain. Proximus mare, nearest the sea.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Hūmānī nīl ā mē aliēnum putō, I consider nothing human foreign to me; T. Heaut. 77. Homine aliēnissimum, most foreign to or from man; C. Off. 1, 18.

4. The Genitive with adjectives meaning like, unlike, belonging to, characteristic of, and a few others²:

Cyri similis esse voluit, he wished to be like Cyrus; C. Brut. 81. Populi Romāni est propria libertās, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people; C. Ph. 6, 7, 19.

Note. — With similis Plautus and Terence use only the Genitive; Ovid, Horace, and Vergil generally the Dative; Cicero generally the Dative of persons and either the Genitive or Dative of things.

Dative with Nouns and Adverbs

436. Rule. — The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative:

Iūstitia est obtemperātio lēgibus, justice is obedience to the laws; C. Leg. 1, 15. Opulento homini servitūs dūra est, serving a rich man is hard; Pl. Amph. 166. Congruenter nātūrae vivere, to live in accord with nature; C. Fin. 3, 7. Proximē hostium castris, nearest to the camp of the enemy; Caes. C. 1, 72.

- 1. The Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not thus derived:
- Tribūnīcia potestās, mūnīmentum libertāti, tribunician power, a defense for liberty; cf. L. 3, 37.
 - 2. For the Dative of Gerundives with Official Names, see 627, 2.

GENITIVE

437. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations. Indeed, many Genitives and adjectives are so entirely synonymous that they are often used the one for the other. Thus belli iūs and bellicum iūs, the right of war, are often equivalent expressions.

¹ Like the Accusative after propius and proxime; see 420, 5.

² As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par, dispar; adfinis; proprius, sacer; contrarius, insuetus, superstes, etc.

HARK. LAT. GRAM. — 15

- 1. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, but it is also sometimes used with verbs and adverbs, especially with those in which the substantive idea is prominent.
 - 438. The Genitive is used as follows:
 - 1. As Attributive and Predicate Genitive. General use: see 439.
 - 2. As Subjective and Objective Genitive; see 440.
 - 3. As Partitive Genitive; see 441.
 - 4. In Special Constructions; see 445.
 - 5. As Predicate Genitive of Price and Value; see 448.
 - 6. As Predicate Genitive with Refert and Interest; see 449.
 - 7. As Objective Genitive with Adjectives; see 450.
 - 8. As Objective Genitive with Verbs; see 454-458.

Genitive with Nouns

439. Rule.—A noun used as an Attributive or Predicate of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Attributive Genitives. — Xenophōntis librī, the books of Xenophon. Propter metum poenae, on account of fear of punishment. Vir cōnsilii māguī, a man of great prudence. Hērodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Iūstitia est rēgīna virtūtum, Justice is the queen of virtues.

Predicate Genitives. — Omnia hostium erant, all things were in the possession of (were of) the enemy; L. 6, 40, 17. Iūdicis est vērum sequī, to follow the truth is the duty of a judge. Māgnī erunt mihī tuae litterae, your letters will be of great value to me; C. Fam. 15, 15, 4.

- 1. For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 393.
 - 2. For the Predicate Dative, see 433, 1.
- 3. A Predicate Genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a Predicate Adjective (382, 2): hominis est = hūmānum est, it is the mark of a man, is human; stultī est = stultum est, it is foolish. The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapientis est, it is the part of a wise man, is wise.
- 4. The Predicate Genitive of personal pronouns is not in good use, but its place is supplied by possessives in agreement with the subject—an illustration of the close relationship between predicate Genitives and predicate adjectives. Compare the following examples:

Est tuum videre quid agatur, it is your duty (yours) to see what is being done; C. Mur. 88, 88. Est consulis videre quid agatur, it is the duty of (is of) the consul to see what is being done; C. Mur. 2, 4.

5. The Predicate Genitive is sometimes supplied by a Genitive depending on a noun or adjective, meaning mark, duty, part, business, characteristic, etc.:

Id viri est officium, this is the part of a man; in C. Tusc. 2, 21. Est proprium stultitiae, aliorum vitia cernere, it is characteristic of folly to perceive the faults of others; C. Tusc. 3, 80.

Attributive Genitive

440. The Attributive Genitive may be

1. A Subjective Genitive, designating the Subject or Agent of an action and the Author or Possessor of anything:

In sermone hominum, in the conversation of men. Deorum immortalium cura, by the care of the immortal gods. Lamentationem matrum perhorresco, I shudder at the lamentation of mothers. Xenophontis libri, the books of Xenophon.

- Note 1.—That this Genitive really represents the subject of the action is readily seen if we express the implied action in the form of a sentence: the conversation of men, men converse; the lamentation of mothers, mothers lament.
- Note 2.—Possessives are regularly used for the subjective Genitive of personal pronouns: mea domus, my house; nostra patria, our country.
- 2. An Objective Genitive, designating the Object towards which the action or feeling is directed:

Meus amor gloriae, my love of glory. Crescit amor nummi, the love of money increases. Tui sui memoria delectatur, he is delighted with your recollection of him; C. Att. 13, 1, 3.

- Note 1. For the objective Genitive, the Accusative with in, ergā, or adversus is sometimes used: odium patris in filium, the father's hatred against his son; odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of or towards the Romans.
- Note 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the objective Genitive of personal pronouns: neque neglegentiā tuā neque odiō tuō, neither from disregard of you nor from hatred of you; T. Ph. 1016.
- 3. A Descriptive Genitive, or Genitive of Characteristic, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc. It is generally accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier:

Vir māgnae auctöritātis, a man of great influence. Mītis ingeniī iuvenis, a youth of mild disposition. Vestis māgnī pretiī, a garment of great value. Corona parvī ponderis, a crown of small weight. Exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years.

Note 1. — For the Predicate Genitive of Price, see 448.

Note 2. - For the Ablative of Characteristic, see 473, 2.

4. A Defining or Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an appositive (393):

Virtūs continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Tellūs Ausoniae, the land of Ausonia. Nomen carendi, the word want (of wanting); C. Tusc. 1, 36. Vox voluptātis, the word pleasure; C. Fin. 2, 2, 6.

5. A Partitive Genitive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Pars flüminis Rheni, a part of the river Rhine. Quis vestrum, which of you? Omnium sapientissimus, the wisest of all men. Nihil boni, nihil malt, nothing (of) good, nothing bad; C. Am. 4.

Note. — The Partitive Genitive, though generally a noun or pronoun, may be an adjective used substantively in the Genitive singular of the Second Declension, as boni, mali. Adjectives of the Third Declension, on the contrary, regularly agree with the partitive word, but in rare instances they are attracted into the Genitive by another Partitive Genitive:

Quicquam, non dico civilis, sed hūmāni, anything, I do not say civil, but human; L. 5. 8.

441. The Partitive Genitive is common with nouns and pronouns used partitively:

Maxima pars hominum, most men (the largest part of). Magno cum pondere auri, with a large quantity of gold. Montes auri pollicens, promising mountains of gold. Unus quisque nostrum, every one of us. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Aliquid consilii, any wisdom (anything of wisdom). Id temporis, that (of) time.

442. The Partitive Genitive is also common with numerals and adjectives used substantively, especially with comparatives and superlatives:

Mille misit militum, he sent a thousand soldiers. Quattuor milia equitum, four thousand (of) cavalry. Hörum omnium fortissimi, the bravest of all these. Prior hörum in proelio cecidit, the former of these fell in battle; N. 21, 1, 2. Aetātis extrēmum, the end of life; S. 90, 1.

¹ For the construction of unus, see 444, 1.

1. Pronouns and Adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive usually take the gender of the Genitive, but Predicate Superlatives, when thus used, generally agree with the subject:

Quis eōrum nōn ēgregius, who of them is not eminent? Sapientum octāvus, the eighth of the wise men; II. S. 2, 3, 296. Indus est omnium flüminum māximus, the Indus is the largest of all rivers; C. N. D. 2, 52.

Here observe that quis and octāvus take the gender of the Genitive, but that the superlative māximus agrees with the subject.

2. In the best prose, words meaning the whole do not admit the Partitive Genitive, but poets and late writers disregard the rule:

Omnes omnium ordinum homines, all men of all ranks. Cuncta terrarum, all lands; H. 2, 1, 23. Macedonum omnes, all the Macedonians; cf. L. 31, 45, 7.

Observe that in the first example, the adjectives are used regularly in agreement with their nouns, while in the last two they are used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though the partitive idea has entirely disappeared and the construction is partitive only in form.

3. In the best prose the Partitive Genitive is rarely used after any adjectives except comparatives and superlatives, but in the poets and late writers the use of this Genitive is greatly extended:

Săncte deorum, thou holy god; V. 4, 576. Dierum festos, festal days; H. S. 2, 2, 60. Străta viārum = strătae viae, the paved streets; V. 1, 422. Ad multum diei, till late in the day; Liv. 22, 45.

4. With Nouns, quisque, each, every, and uterque, each, both, generally agree as adjectives, but with Pronouns they are generally used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though in the case of uterque, agreement is not uncommon:

Quisque imperator, every commander. Uterque exercitus, each army. Quisque eōrum dē quāque rē, each one of them in regard to every thing; Caes. 4, 5. Utrīque nostrum grātum, acceptable to each of us; C. Am, 4, 16. His utrīsque persuaserant, they had persuaded both of these; Caes. 2, 16.

5. The Neuter of Pronouns and Adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of Persons:

Quicquid erat patrum, whatever (of) senators there were; L. 2, 35. Deōrum quicquid rēgit terrās, whatever gods rule the world; H. Ep. 5, 1. Quid hūc tantum hominum incēdunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming this way? Pl. Poen. 619.

443. The Partitive Genitive is also used with a few Adverbs, especially with Adverbs of Quantity, Degree, and Place:

Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, enough of eloquence, of wisdom too little; S. C. 5, 4. Lūcis habent nimis, they have too much light; O. F. 6, 115. Māximē omnium nobilium Graecis litteris studuit, of all the nobles he most devoted himself to Greek letters; C. Brut. 20, 78. Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? C. C. 1, 4, 9.

444. Instead of the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with ante, inter, or apud, or the Ablative with ex, dē, or in, is often used, especially when the Whole is denoted by a cardinal number, or by a noun in the singular:

Thales sapientissimus in septem fuit, Thales was the wisest of the seven; C. Leg. 2, 11, 26. Quis ex tantā multitūdine, who of so great a multitude? Ante alios pulcherrimus omnēs, most beautiful of all (before all others). Apud Helvētios dītissimus, the richest among the Helvetii.

1. In the best prose, **unus** is generally followed by the Ablative with ex or dē, but sometimes by the Partitive Genitive: unus ex summis viris, one of the greatest of heroes; unus dē multis, one of the multitude; unus eorum pontium, one of those bridges.

Genitive in Special Constructions

- 445. The word upon which the Attributive Genitive depends is often omitted:
- 1. Especially when it has been expressed with a preceding Genitive. Then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case appropriate for the governing word:

Conferre vitam Treboni cum Dolabellae, to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella; C. Ph. 11, 4, 9. Natūra hominis beluīs antecedit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes; cf. C. Off. 1, 80.

2. When it can be readily supplied, especially aedes, or templum after a preposition, as ad, ante, ā, or ab:

Habitābat rēx ad Iovis, the king resided near the temple of Jupiter; L. 1, 41. Hannibal annorum novem, Hannibal, (a boy) nine years of age; L. 21, 1. Aberant bīduī (viam), they were two days' journey distant; C. Att. 5. 16.

446. Observe also the following constructions:

1. The Genitive of a Proper Name seems to depend directly on another proper noun in many cases in which we supply the word son, daughter, husband, wife, or slave:

Hasdrubal Giscōnis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, i.e., Hasdrubal, Gisco's son; L. 28, 12. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, i.e., Hector's wife; V. 3, 319. Hūius videō Byrriam, I see his Byrria, i.e., his slave Byrria; T. And. 357.

2. Two Genitives are sometimes used with the same noun, one subjective, the other objective or descriptive. To these a third Genitive is occasionally added:

Helvētiōrum iniūriae populī Rōmānī, the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people; cf. Caes. 1, 80. Memmī odium potentiae nobilitātis, Memmius's hatred of the power of the nobility; cf. S. 80.

3. A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of ipse, sõlus, ünus, or omnis:

Ad tuam ipsīus amīcitiam, to your own friendship; C. Ver. 3, 4, 7. Meā ūnīus operā, by my aid alone; C. Pls. 3, 6. Tuum studium adulēscentis, your devotion as a young man; C. Fam. 15, 18.

4. The Genitive is used with Instar meaning likeness, image, but generally used in the sense of, as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equum aedificant, they construct a horse of the size of a mountain; V. 2, 15. Plato Instar est omnium, Plato is worth them all; C. Brut. 51, 191.

5. The Genitive is used with prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō, and tenus, nouns in origin, and as such governing the Genitive; prīdiē and postrīdiē are Locatives:

Prīdiē ēius diēī, on the day before that day; Caes. 1, 47. Postrīdiē ēius diēī, on the day after that day. Virtūtis ergō, on the ground of merit. Urbium Coreyrae tenus, as far as the cities of Corcyra; L. 26, 24.

Predicate Genitive

447. The Predicate Genitive is generally Subjective or Descriptive, rarely Partitive. When used with transitive verbs, it is of course combined with the Direct Object. It is most common with sum and facto, but it also occurs with verbs of Seeming, Regarding, Valning, etc.:

Est imperatoris superare, to conquer is the business of a commander; Caes. C. 1, 72. Oram Romanae dicionis fecit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule; L. 21, 60. Fies nobilium fontium, you will become (one) of the noble fountains; H. 3, 13.

1. Aequi, boni, and reliqui occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequi facere, aequi bonique facere, boni consulere, to take in good part, and reliqui facere, to leave:

Aequi bonique facio, I take it in good part; T. Heaut. 788. Milites nihil reliqui victis fecere, the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished; S. C. 11.

2. For the general use of the Predicate Genitive, see also 439.

Predicate Genitive of Price and Value

448. The Predicate Genitive of Price and Value is used with sum and with verbs of Valuing; especially with aestimō, faciō, and putō:

Parvi pretii est, he is of small value. Māgni erunt mihi tuae litterae, your letters will be of great value to me. Patrem tuum plūrimi fēcī, I prized your father most highly (made of the greatest value); C. Att. 16, 16, D. Ea māgni aestimantur, those things are highly valued. Honōrēs māgni putāre, to deem honors of great value. Nōn flocci faciunt, they care not a straw (lock of wool); Pl. Trin. 211. Nōn habeō naucī Marsum, I do not reyard Marsus of the least account; C. Div. 1, 58. Hūius nōn faciam, I shall not care that (a snap) for it; T. Add. 163.

- 1. The Genitive of Price or Value is generally an adjective, as māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; plūris, minōris; māximī, plūrimī, minimī, but pretīī is sometimes expressed as in the first example. Nihilī and a few other Genitives occur, chiefly in familiar discourse.
- With aestimō the price and value are denoted either by the Genitive or by the Ablative:

SI prāta māgno aestimant; quanti est aestimanda virtūs, if they value meadows at a high price, at what price ought virtue to be valued? C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

3. In expressions of price and value, **pendō**, common in early Latin, is exceedingly rare in the classical period:

Quae parvI pendunt, which they regard of little value; T. Hec. 518. Ea võs parvI pendēbātis, those things you deemed of little importance; S. C. 52, 9.

4. Tanti, quanti, pluris, and minoris are used as Genitives of Price even with verbs of Buying and Selling, though with these verbs price is generally expressed by the Ablative:

Canius ēmit tantī quantī Pythius voluit, Canius purchased them (the gardens) at as high a price as Pythius wished; cf. C. Off. 3, 14, 59. Vēndō meum non plūris, quam cēterī, fortasse minoris, I sell mine (my grain) no higher

¹ An illustration of Sallust's fondness for archaic constructions.

than the others, perhaps lower. Quanti emptae, purchased at what price? Parvo, at a low price; 11. S. 2, 3, 156. Vendidit hic auro patriam, he sold his country for gold; V. 6. 621.

5. For the Ablative of Price, see 478.

Predicate Genitive with Refert and Interest

449. The Construction of refert and interest is as follows:

1. The Person or Thing 1 interested is denoted by the Genitive, but instead of the Genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun, the Ablative feminine of the Possessive is regularly used:

Neque refert cuiusquam, nor does it concern any one; Tac. An. 4, 88. Quid Milonis intererat, how was it the interest of Milo? C. Mil. 18, 84. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Salutis communis interest, it concerns the public welfare. Tua et mea interest, it is your interest and mine; C. Fam. 16, 4, 4.

Note. — In a few cases the person is denoted by the Dative or by the Accusative with ad; chiefly with refert, which often omits the person:

Dic quid referat intra naturae fines viventi, tell what difference it makes to one living in accord with nature; H. S. 1, 1, 49. Quid id ad me refert, how does that concern me? Pl. Pers. 4, 3, 44.

2. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive, or clause, or by a neuter pronoun:

Interest omnium recte facere, to do right is the interest of all; C. Fin. 2, 22, 72. Non refert quam multos libros habeas, it matters not how many books you have; cf. Sen. E. 5, 4. Quid tuā id refert, how does that concern you?

3. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an adverb, an adverbial Accusative, or a Genitive of Value:

Vestrā hōc māximē interest, this especially interests you; C. Sul. 25, 79. TheodorI nihil interest, it does not all interest Theodorus. Illud meā māgnī interest, that greatly interests me; C. Att. 11, 22.

4. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Māgnī ad honōrem nostrum interest, for our honor it is of great importance; C. Fam. 16, 1, 1.

Note. — The most plausible explanation hitherto given of this construction is that the Genitive with refert depends upon re, the Ablative of res contained in the verb, that the Possessive, meä, tuä, etc., agrees with the Ablative re, and that interest, a later word, simply follows the analogy of refert.

¹ A thing is rarely so used unless personified.

Genitive with Adjectives

450. Rule. — Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidī laudis fuistis, you have been very desirous of praise. Cupidus es glōriae, you are fond of glory. Prūdēns reī mīlitāris erat, he was skilled in military science; N. 9, 1, 2. Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī, you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself; C. C. 4, 9, 19. Plēna Graecia poētārum fuit, Greece was full of poets. Gallia hominum fertilis fuit, Gaul was fruitful in men. Homō amantissimus patriae, a man very fond of his country. Iuventūs bellī patiēns, youth capable of enduring the hardships of war; S. C. 7.

- 1. This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns. Compare the following: cupidus gloriae, desirous of glory; propter gloriae cupiditatem, on account of the desire of glory.
 - 2. For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 481, 1.

451. This Objective Genitive is used,

1. With Adjectives denoting Desire, Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, and the like, with their contraries: sapientiae studiosus, studious (student) of wisdom; perItus bellī, skilled in war; consoius coniūrātionis, cognizant of the conspiracy; Insuetus nāvigandī, unacquainted with navigation:

Quis est omnium tam Ignārus rērum, who is so ignorant of all things? Omnēs immemorem beneficii ödērunt, all hate him who is unmindful of a favor; C. Off. 2, 18, 63.

NOTE. — Certus with the Genitive in the best prose occurs only in the phrase certiforem facere, to inform, which takes either the Genitive or the Ablative with de, though Caesar admits only the latter construction:

Certiorem me sul consilii fecit, he informed me of his plan; C. Att. 9, 2, 8. His de rebus certior factus, having been informed of these things.

2. With Adjectives denoting Participation, Characteristic, Guilt, Fullness, Mastery, etc., with their contraries: rationis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason; rationis expers, destitute of reason; manifestus rerum capitalium, convicted of capital crimes:

Erat Ītalia plēna Graecārum artium, Italy was full of Grecian arts; C. Arch. 3, 5. Virī propria est fortitūdō, fortitude is characteristic of a true man. Meī potēns sum, I am master of myself. Omnēs virtūtis compotēs beātī sunt, all (who are) possessed of virtue are happy; C. Tusc. 5, 13, 89.

GENITIVE 219

Note 1.—A few adjectives, as similis, dissimilis; aliënus, communis; contrărius and superstes admit either the Genitive or the Dative; see 435,4:

Canis similis lupō, a dog similar to a wolf; C. N. D. 1, 35, 97. Cyri similis esse voluit, he wished to be like Cyrus; C. Brut. 81, 282.

Note 2. — Conscius may take an Objective Genitive in connection with the Dative of a personal or reflexive pronoun:

Mēns sibī conscia rēctī, a mind conscious (to itself) of rectitude.

3. With Present Participles used as Adjectives:

Est amāns suī virtūs, virtue is fond of itself; C. Am. 26, 98. Vir amantissimus reī pūblicae, a man very fond of the republic. Virtūs efficiens est voluptātis, virtue is productive of pleasure; cf. C. Off. 3, 38. Appetentēs gloriae fuistis, you have been desirous of glory.

Note. — Observe the difference in meaning between a participle with an objective Genitive and the same participle with a direct object. Amāns patriae, fond of his country, represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amāns patriam, loving his country, designates a particular instance or act.

- 452. In poetry and in late prose, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used:
- 1. With Verbals in ax and with Adjectives of almost every variety of meaning, simply to define their application:

Fugăx ambitionis eram, *I was inclined to shun ambition*; O. Tr. 4, 10. Tenāx propositī, steadfast of purpose; H. 3, 3. Aevī mātūrus, mature in age; V. 5, 73. Sērī studiorum, late in studies; H. S. 1, 10. Aeger animī, afflicted in spirit; L. 1, 58. Fīdēns animī, confident in spirit; V. 2, 61.

2. With a few Adjectives to denote Separation, or Cause, like the

Liber laborum, released from his labors; H. A. P. 212. Integer vitae scelerisque pūrus, of upright life and innocent of crime; H. 1, 22. Notus animi paterni, distinguished for paternal affection; H. 2, 2.

- 453. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive sometimes admit other constructions. Compare the following examples:
 - 1. Genitive, or Accusative with ad or in:

Avidī laudis fuistis, you have been very desirous of praise; C. Man. 3, 7. Avidī ad pūgnam, eager for battle; L. 7, 23. Avidus in novās rēs, eager for new things; cf. L. 22, 21.

¹ Probably a Locative in origin, as animis, not animorum, is used in similar instances in the plural.

2. Genitive, Dative, or Accusative with ad:

Hominės însuėti laboris, men unaccustomed to labor; Cass. 7, 30. Insuėtus moribus Romanis, unaccustomed to Roman manners; cf. L. 28, 18. Insuetus ad pūgnam, unaccustomed to battle; L. 31, 35.

3. Genitive, Dative, or Ablative with de or in:

Conscius coniurationis, cognizant of the conspiracy; S. C. 37. Huic facinori conscius, aware of this crime; C. Cael. 21,52. Is de rebus conscius, aware of these things; cf. C. Att. 2, 24.

4. Genitive, Accusative with ad, or Ablative with or without in:

Prūdēns reī mīlitāris, skilled in military science; N. 9, 1. Prūdēns ad consilia, wise for counsel; C. Font. 15, 38. Prūdēns in iūre cīvīlī, learned in civīl law; C. Am. 2.

5. The Genitive, or the Ablative:

Mare refertum praedonum, a sea full of pirates; C. Rab. P. 8, 20. Domus referta vāsīs Corinthiīs, a house full of Corinthian vases; C. Rosc. A. 46, 188,

Genitive with Verbs

454. Rule. — Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting — memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor — regularly take the Objective Genitive when used of Persons, but either the Genitive or the Accusative when used of Things:

Vīvorum meminī nec Epicūrī licet oblīvīscī, I remember the living and it is not allowable to forget Epicurus; C. Fin. 5, 1. Oblītus sum meī, I have forgotten myself; T. Eun. 306. Animus meminit praeteritorum, the soul remembers the past; C. Div. 1, 30. Beneficia meminērunt, they remember favors; C. Planc. 33. Reminīscī virtūtis Helvētiorum, to remember the valor of the Helvetii; cf. Caes. 1, 13. Eās (rēs) reminīscī, to remember those things; C. Sen. 21, 78. Veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī, to forget the ancient disgrace; Caes. 1, 14. Tōtam causam oblītus est, he forgot the whole case; C. Brut. 60, 217.

1. Observe that **meminī**, **reminīscor**, and **oblīvīscor** admit a **double** construction. As transitive verbs they may take the Accusative, **but by** virtue of their signification, to be mindful of, to be forgetful of, they may take the Genitive; **reminīscitur** = memor est; **oblīvīscitur** = immemor est. The close relationship between the Genitive with these verbs and the Genitive with adjectives is readily seen in the following examples:

Memorës virtūtis tuae, mindful of your valor; C. Fam. 1, 7, 2. Reminiscerëtur virtūtis Helvētiörum, that he should remember the valor of the Helvetii; Caes. 1, 18.

2. The Accusative may be used of a person remembered by a contemporary or by an eyewitness:

Cinnam memini, I remember Cinna; C. Ph. 5, 6.

- 3. Memini, I make mention of, may take the Ablative with de:
- Meministī dē exsulibus, you make mention of the exiles; C. Ph. 2, 86.
- 4. **Venit mihi** (tibl, etc.) in mentem = reminiscor, generally takes the Genitive, but sometimes the Nominative, though in Cicero only rēs, or a neuter pronoun or adjective:

Venit mihl Platonis in mentem, the recollection of Plato comes to my mind; C. Fin. 5, 1. Non venit in mentem pugna, does not the battle occur to your mind? L. 8, 5. Ea tibl in mentem veniunt, those things occur to your mind; C. Att. 15, 11.

455. Recordor, I recall, when used of Persons, takes the Ablative with dē, but when used of Things, it almost always takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive:

Recordare de ceteris, bethink yourself of the others; C. Sull. 2, 5. Ut triumphos recordentur, so that they may recall triumphs; C. Sen. 5, 18. Flagitiorum suorum recordabitur, he will recall his base deeds; C. Pis. 6, 12.

Accusative and Genitive

456. Rule. — Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing, and verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, Acquitting, take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, Charge, etc.:

Ipse tē veteris amīcitiae commonefēcit, he himself reminded you of your old friendship; cf. Ad. Her. 4, 24, 33. Meārum mē miseriārum commonēs, you remind me of my misfortunes. Eum tū accūsās avāritiae, do you accuse him of avarice? C. Flac. 33, 83. Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason. Levitātis plērosque convincunt, they convict most men of fickleness. Ut capitis hominem innocentissimum condemnārent, so that they condemned a most innocent man on a capital charge; C. Or. 1, 54, 233. Iūdex absolvit iniūriārum eum, the judge acquitted him on a charge of assault.

1. Instead of the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, etc., the Ablative with de or the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective is often used. This is the common construction with moneō and its compounds:

De quo vos admonui, of which I have reminded you; C. Man. 15, 45. Illud me admones, you admonish me of that; C. Att. 9, 9, 2. Sī id non me accusas, if you do not accuse me of that; Pl. Trin. 96.

2. With verbs of Accusing, etc., the Genitive with nomine, crīmine, iūdiciō, or some similar word is sometimes used. This may be the original construction, and if so, it is a sufficient explanation of the Genitive with these verbs. Compare the following examples:

Në quem innocentem iūdiciō capitis arcessās, that you should not arraign an innocent man on a capital charge; C. Off. 2, 14, 51. Inimicum frātris capitis arcessit, he arraigned his brother's enemy on a capital charge; Ad Her. 1, 11, 18.

Note. — Latin verbs of Accusing, when they mean simply to find fault with, to complain of, take the Accusative of the crime, or fault, as in English.

Inertiam accūsās adulēscentium, you complain of the indolence of the young men; C. Or. 58, 246.

3. With verbs of Condemning, the Penalty is generally expressed by the Ablative, with or without dē, or by the Accusative with a preposition, usually ad. The Ablative is regularly used when the penalty is a fine of a definite sum of money:

Pecunia multatus est, he was condemned to pay a fine in money; N. 1, 7, 6. Sī illum morte multassem, if I had condemned him to death. Tertia parte agrī damnātī, condemned to forfeit a third of their land. Multos ad bēstias condemnavit, he condemned many to the wild beasts; Suet. Cal. 27.

4. Notice the following special expressions: dē māiestāte or māiestātis damnāre, to condemn for high treason; dē vī damnāre, to condemn for assault; dē pecūniīs repetundīs postulāre, to prosecute for extortion; inter sīcāriōs damnāre, to convict of homicide; vōtī damnātus, condemned to fulfill a vow = having obtained a wish; ad metalla condemnātus, condemned to the mines.

Genitive with Verbs of Feeling

457. Rule. — Misereor and miseresco take the Objective Genitive; miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, and taedet take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive² of the Object which produces the feeling:

¹ Observe, however, that the use of the Genitive with these verbs in Latin accords entirely with the English idiom; as, he was accused of treason.

² The Genitive with some of these verbs of feeling doubtless follows the analogy of other constructions, in which the Genitive depends on a noun or adjective, expressed or understood, but with others it seems to depend directly on the substantive idea suggested by the verbs themselves. Thus taedet readily suggests its exact equivalent taedium capit. Indeed, Seneca's taedium eum vitae capit, in which vitae depends upon taedium, is equivalent to eum vitae taedet.

Miserēminī sociōrum, have pity on our allies; C. Ver. 1, 28, 72. Arcadiī miserēscite rēgis, pity the Arcadian king; V. 8, 573. Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them (pity for, or of them moves us); C. Mil. 84, 92. Nostrī nōsmet paenitet, we are dissatisfied with ourselves; T. Ph. 172. Frātris mē piget, I am grieved at my brother. Mē stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Mē cīvitātis mōrum taedet, I am tired of the manners of the state.

- 1. Miserēscō belongs to poetry.
- 2. Miseror and commiseror, I pity, deplore, take the Accusative in the best prose:

Miserantur communem Galliae fortunam, they deplore the common fortune of Gaul; Caes. 7, 1, 5.

3. The impersonal verbs miseret, paenitet, etc., sometimes admit an impersonal subject, as an Infinitive or clause, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Neque me vixisse paenitet, nor am I sorry to have lived; C. Sen. 28, 84. Non te haec pudent, do not these things put you to shame? T. Ad. 754.

4. **Pudet** sometimes takes the Genitive of the person in whose presence one has a feeling of shame or unworthiness:

Mē tuī pudet, I am ashamed in your presence; T. Ad. 688.

5. Like miseret are sometimes used miserescit, commiserescit, and miseretur; like taedet, pertaesum est and, in early Latin, distaedet and a few other rare words. In Suetonius pertaesus occurs with the Accusative.

Genitive with Special Verbs

- 458. In certain Special Constructions, largely colloquial, or poetical in their origin, many verbs by analogy occasionally admit the Genitive, or if transitive, the Accusative and Genitive:
- 1. Some verbs denoting Desire, Emotion, or Feeling, like adjectives and verbs of the same general meaning and construction:

Cupiunt tui, they desire you; Pl. Mil. 963. Në tui quidem testimonii veritus, regarding not even your testimony; C. Att. 8, 4. Ego animi 2 pendeo, I am uncertain in mind; cf. C. Leg. 1, 3. Discrucior animi, 2 I am troubled in spirit. Desipiebam mentis, I was out of my senses.

2. Some Verbs of Plenty and Want, as compleō, impleō, egeō, indigeō, like adjectives of the same general meaning (451, 2):

¹ Greek influence may also be recognized in some of them.

² Animī in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as animīs, not animōrum, is used in the same way in the plural.

Virtūs exercitātionis indiget, virtue requires exercise; of. C. Fin. 8, 15. Egeo consilii, I need counsel; C. Att. 7, 22. Mē complēvit formīdinis, he has filled me with fear; Pl. Men. 901.

3. Some verbs denoting Mastery or Participation, — potior, adipf-scor, regno, — like adjectives of similar meaning (451, 2):

Partis Siciliae potitus est, he became master of a part of Sicily; N. 10, 5. Regnavit populorum, he was king of the peoples; H. 3, 30.

4. In the poets, a few verbs which usually take the Ablative of Separation or Cause admit the Genitive:

Mē labōrum levās, you relieve me of my labors; Pl. Rud. 247. Abstinētō īrārum, abstain from quarrels; II. 3, 27, 69. Dēsine querellārum, desist from your lamentations. Mīrārī bellī labōrum, to wonder at warlike achievements. Damnī īnfectī prōmittere, to become responsible for possible damage; cf. C. Top. 4, 22.

Note. — The Genitive in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek, occurs in three or four isolated examples in the Latin poets, but it is not found in Terence, Vergil, or Horace:

O mihi nuntii beati, O the glad tidings to me; Catul. 9, 5.

ABLATIVE

- 459. The Latin Ablative performs the duties of three cases originally distinct:
 - I. Ablative Proper, denoting the relation From:
 - II. Instrumental, denoting the relation With, By:
 - III. Locative, denoting the relation In, At.

Note. — This threefold nature of the Latin Ablative gives us a basis for a general classification, at once scientific and practical, although in the course of the development of the language so many new applications of these original elements were made that it is sometimes impossible to determine with certainty to which of them a given construction owes its origin.

I. Ablative Proper

- 460. The Ablative Proper includes:
 - 1. Ablative of Separation; see 461.
 - 2. Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, etc.; see 467.
 - 3. Ablative of Comparison; see 471.

ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION

461. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition — ā, ab, dē, or ex — when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with ab, dē, dis, sē, or ex:

Legiones abdūcis ā Brūtō, you alienate the legions from Brutus; C. Ph. 10, 3, 6. Caedem ā vobīs dēpellēbam, I was warding off slaughter from you. Plēbs ā patribus sēcessit, the common people seceded from the patricians. Dē foro discessimus, we withdrew from the forum. Caesar copiās suās ē castrīs ēdūxit, Caesar led his forces out of the camp; Caes. 1, 50. Ex oppido fūgit, he fled out of the town.

462. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town or is used after a verb meaning to relieve, free, deprive, need, or be without:

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, Demaratus fled from Corinth; C. Tusc. 5, 87. Rōmā accēperam litterās, I had received a letter from Rome. Quī Narbōne reditus, what a return from Narbo! C. Ph. 2, 30, 76. Levā mē hōc onere, relieve me from this burden; C. Fam. 3, 12, 3. Māgnō mē metū līberābis, you will free me from great fear. Mūrus dēfēnsōribus nūdātus est, the wall was stripped of its defenders; Caes. 2, 6. Nōn egeō medicīnā, I do not need a remedy. Vacāre culpā māgnum est sōlācium, to be free from fault is a great comfort; C. Fam. 7, 3, 4.

- 1. With the Ablative of Separation, the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: dē forō, from the forum; ex oppidō, out of the town; but metū līberāre, to free from fear; vacāre culpā, to be free from fault.
- 2. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast, regularly after longs:

Longe ab Athenis esse, to be far from Athens; Pl. Pers. 151.

3. The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town itself, is meant:

Discessit ā Brundisiō, he departed from Brundisium (i.e. from the port); Caes. C. 3, 24.

4. Many Names of Islands and the Ablatives domo, humo, and rure, are used like names of towns:

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Lēmnō adveniō Athēnās, from Lemnos I come to Athens; Pl. Truc. 91. Cum domō profūgisset, when he had fled from home; C. Brut. 89, 306. Videō rūre redeuntem senem, I see the old man returning from the country. Vix oculōs attollit humō, she hardly raises her eyes from the ground.

ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION WITH SPECIAL VERBS

463. With moveō, cēdō, and pellō in special expressions the Ablative of Separation is used without a preposition:

Loco ille motus est, he was dislodged from his position; C. C. 2, 1. Eundem vidi cēdentem Ītaliā, I saw the same man leaving Italy; C. Ph. 10, 4, 8. Cīvem pellere possessionibus conātus est, he attempted to drive a citizen from his possessions; C. Mil. 27, 74.

464. With many verbs the Ablative of Separation is used, sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition.

De provincia decessit, he withdrew from the province; C. Ver. 2, 20, 48. Decedens provincia, withdrawing from the province; C. Lig. 1, 2. Expellet ex patria, will he banish them from the country? Me patria expulerat, he had driven me from the country.

- 1. Note also the expressions ab oppidis prohibère, to keep from the towns; suis finibus prohibère, to keep out of their territory; dépellere a vobis, de provincia, to drive away from you, from the province; tota Sicilia dépellere, to drive from the whole of Sicily.
- 2. Arceō generally takes the Ablative with a preposition, but at variance with general usage it sometimes omits the preposition when used in a purely local sense:

Tū hunc ā tuīs templīs arcēbis, you will keep him from your temples; C. C. 1. 13, 33. Tē illīs aedibus arcēbit, he will keep you from this abode; C. Ph. 2, 40, 104.

3. Interd $\bar{\mathbf{c}}$ $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ regularly takes the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing:

Galliā Romānīs interdīxit, he forbade the Romans the use of Gaul; ct. Caes. 1, 46.

465. With adjectives meaning free from, destitute of, the Ablative of Separation is used sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition:

Haec loca ab arbitrīs lībera sunt, these places are free from spectators; cf. C. Att. 15, 16. Animus līber cūrā, a mind free from care; C. Fin. 15, 49.

- 1. Notice also the following expressions: nūdus ā propinquīs, destitute of relatives; nūdus praesidiō, destitute of defense; vacuus ab dēfēnsōribus, without defenders; gladius vāgīnā vacuus, a sword without a sheath.
 - 2. Expers generally takes the Genitive, but sometimes the Ablative:

Omnis ērudītionis expers fuit, he was destitute of all learning; cf. C. Or. 2, 1. Omnēs fortūnis expertēs sumus, we are all destitute of fortunes; S. C. 33.

- 3. Some adjectives with this meaning take the Genitive; see 451, 2.
- **466.** In the poets and late writers the Ablative of Separation, even in a purely local sense, is often used without a preposition:

Columbae caelo vēnēre volantēs, the doves came flying from the heavens; V. 6, 190. Non poterit vēro dīstinguere falsum, he will not be able to distinguish the false from the true; H. E. 1, 10, 29. Cecidēre caelo lapidēs, stones fell from the heavens; L. 1, 31.

1. Notice also the following expressions from Vergil and Horace: Lyciā missus, sent from Lycia; cadere nūbibus, to fall from the clouds; carceribus missus, sent forth from the barriers; lābēns equō, falling from his horse.

ABLATIVE OF SOURCE

467. Rule. — The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition, — ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex:

Source in General. — Ab hīs sermō oritur, with (from) these the conversation begins; C. Am. 1, 5. Hōc audīvī dē patre meō, this I have heard from my father. Appellāta est ex virō virtūs, virtue was named from vir, a man. Ex invidiā labōrāvit, he suffered from unpopularity; C. Clu. 71, 202.

Agency. — Ab hīs amātur, by these he is loved. Mons ā Labieno tenetur, the mountain is held by Labienus; Caes. 1, 22.

Parentage or Ancestry. — Ex mē nātus es, you are my son. Oriundī ab Sabīnīs, descended from the Sabines; L. 1, 27.

Material. — Erat ex fraude factus, he was made of fraud. Pōcula ex aurō, cups of gold; C. Ver. 4, 26, 62.

468. The Ablative of the Independent Agent, or the Author of an action, takes the preposition ā or ab:

Rex ab suis appellatur, he is called king by his own men. Non est consentaneum vinci a voluptate, it is not meet to be overcome by pleasure.

- 1. When anything is personified and treated as the agent of an action, the Ablative with **ā** or ab may be used as in the second example above.
- 2. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a person, regarded not as the author of the action, but as the means by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidis firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians.

3. The Accusative with **per** may be used of the person through **whom**, through whose agency or help, the action is effected:

Ab Oppiānicō per Fabriciōs factus, made by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricii; cf. C. Clu. 23, 62.

Note. — Compare these three kindred constructions for the names of persons: ab Oppiānicō, by Oppianicus, the author of the action; per Fabriciōs, through the Fabricii, i.e. through their agency or help; and Numidīs, with Numidians, used as the means of the action.

469. The Ablative of Parentage and Ancestry is generally used

1. With a or ab, in designating Remote Ancestry:

Belgae sunt orti ab Germānis, the Belgians originated from the Germans; cf. Caes. 2, 4. Oriundi ex Etrūscis, descended from the Etruscans.

2. Without a preposition with the verb nascor and a few Perfect Participles, as natus, prognatus, ortus, and in poetry and late prose, with ēditus, genitus, satus, etc.:

Sī parentibus nātī sint humilibus, if they have been born of humble parents; C. Am. 19, 70. Nobilī genere nātī sunt, they were born of a noble race; C. Ver. 5, 70, 180. Rēgis nepos, fīliā ortus, the grandson of the king, born of his daughter; L. 1, 32, 1. Edite rēgibus, thou descendant of kings; H. 1, 1. Dīs genite, thou descendant of gods; V. 9, 642. Satae Peliā, the daughters of Pelias; O. M. 7, 322.

470. The Ablative of Material generally takes & or ex, and is used with verbs or participles, and sometimes with nouns:

Erat ex fraude factus, he was made of fraud. Homo ex animo constat et corpore, man consists of a soul and a body; cf. C. N. D. 1,85. Vas ex una gemma, a vase from a single gem; C. Ver. 4, 27, 62.

1. The Ablative of Material is often used without a preposition in poetry, and sometimes even in prose:

Aere cavo clipeus, a hollow shield of bronze; cf. V. 8, 286. Pictās abiete puppēs, painted sterns of fir. Constat tota orātio membris, the whole discourse is made up of members.

ABLATIVE WITH COMPARATIVES

471. Rule. — Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est virtūte¹ amābilius, nothing is more lovely than virtue. C. Am. 8. Nihil habet iūcundius vītā,¹ he considers nothing more agreeable than life. Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Nihil lacrimā citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear.

1. Comparatives with quam are followed by the Nominative or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, better is a sure peace than a hoped-for victory; L. 30, 30. Nēminem aequiōrem reperiet quam mē, he will find no one more just than (he will find) me. Equum meliōrem habet quam tuus est, he has a better horse than yours is; C. Inv. 1, 31, 52.

2. After quam the second of the two nouns compared is sometimes omitted:

Themistocli nomen quam Solonis est illustrius, the name of Themistocles is more illustrious than that of Solon; cf. C. Off. 1, 22, 75.

- 3. The Ablative is used chiefly in negative sentences. It is freely used for quam with a Nominative or Accusative, regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the third example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.
- 4. After plūs, minus, amplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; sometimes also after māior, minor, etc.:

Tēcum plūs annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year; C. Quinc. 12, 41. Minus duo mīlia effūgērunt, less than two thousand escaped; L. 24, 16. Non amplius novem annos nātus, not more than nine years old; cf. N. 23, 2, 8.

Instead of an Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case
 as ante, prae, praeter, or suprā — is sometimes used, especially in poetry:

Ante aliös immānior, more monstrous than (before) the others; V. 1, 847.

6. In poetry and in conversational prose, alius, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative, but in the best prose its regular construction is alius ac or atque, alius quam, or alius nisi:

¹ This Ablative furnishes the standard of comparison—that from which one starts. Thus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. Virtūte = quam virtūs; vītā = quam vītam (habet).

Putāre alium sapiente bonōque beātum, to consider any other than the wise and good happy; cf. H. E. 1, 16, 20. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta est, nothing but peace was sought; cf. C. Off. 1, 23, 80.

7. Quam prō denotes that the two objects compared are out of proportion to each other:

Minor caedes quam pro tanta victoria fuit, the slaughter was small in comparison with the victory; L. 10, 14, 21.

8. Note the following special uses of the Ablative: plūs aequō, more than is fair; plūs iūstō, more than is proper:

Celerius omni opinione venit, he came sooner than any one expected; cf. Caes. 2, 3. Id spe omnium serius fuit, this was later than all hoped it would be; L. 2, 3.

9. In rare instances, mostly poetical, a few verbs and adverbs involving comparison — as mālō, praestō, aequē, adaequē — admit the Ablative:

Nüllös his mällem lüdös spectässe, no games would I prefer to have seen rather than these; II. S. 2, 8, 79. Mē aequē fortūnātus, equally fortunate with me; Pl. Curc. 141.

10. With comparatives the Measure of Difference—the amount by which one thing surpasses another—is denoted by the Ablative (479):

Hibernia dimidio minor quam Britannia, Ireland smaller by one-half than Britain.

II. Instrumental Ablative

472. The Instrumental Ablative includes

- 1. Ablative of Association: see 473.
- 2. Ablative of Cause; see 475.
- 3. Ablative of Means; see 476 and 477.
- 4. Ablative of Price; see 478.
- 5. Ablative of Difference; see 479.
- 6. Ablative of Specification; see 480.

ABLATIVE OF ASSOCIATION

473. Rule. — The Ablative of Association is used

1. To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition cum:

Cum patre habitābat, she was living with her father. Cum hīs armīs ēruptionem fēcērunt, with these arms they made a sally; Caes. 2, 38.

2. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Flümen rīpīs praeruptīs, a stream with precipitous banks; Caes. 6, 7. Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest worth. Catō singulārī fuit industriā, Cato was a man of remarkable industry; N. 24, 3.

- Note 1.—The Ablative of Characteristic and the Genitive of Characteristic supplement each other. The Genitive is generally used to designate permanent characteristics, as Kind, Size, Weight, Value, and the like. In other cases the Ablative is generally used.
- Note 2.—The Ablative of Characteristic may be either Attributive, as in the first two examples, or Predicative, as in the last example.
- 3. To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance.¹ It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum silentiō auditī sunt, they were heard in silence. Templum māgnā cūrā cūstōdiunt, they guard the temple with great care. Epulābātur mōre Persārum, he feasted in the style of the Persians. Catō summā cum glōriā vīxit, Cato lived with the highest glory; C. Ver. 5, 70, 180.

Note.—The Ablative of Manner often takes cum, even when modified by an adjective, as in the last example.

- 474. The Ablative of Association is used without cum in a few special instances, as follows:
- 1. A few Ablatives, perhaps involving the idea of Means: arte, according to art, skillfully; clāmōre, with a shout; cōnsiliō, on purpose; ōrdine, in an orderly way:

Nëmō solitus viā dicere, no one accustomed to speak properly; cf. C. Brut. 12, 46. Aut vī aut fraude fit, it is done either by violence or by fraud; cf. C. Off. 1, 13, 41.

Note. — The Accusative with per sometimes denotes Manner: per vim, violently; per fraudem, fraudulently; per lüdum, sportively.

2. The Ablative of Association is sometimes used without **cum**, after verbs meaning to mingle or to join together, as **confundo**, **iungo**, **misceo**, and their compounds; also whenever the idea of means is involved, especially in military operations:

¹ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative — the first designating an attendant person or thing, the second an attendant quality, the third an attendant circumstance.

Siculis confunditur undis, it mingles with the Sicilian waters; V. 8, 696. Improbitas scelere iuncta, depravity joined with crime; C. Or. 2, 58, 287. Gravitate mixtus lepos, pleasantry united with dignity; C. R. P. 2, 1. Ingenti exercitu profectus, having set out with a large army; L. 7, 9.

- Note 1. In military language the Ablative of Association takes cum, if without modifiers or modified only by a numeral, otherwise it is used without cum: cum exercitū, but ingentī exercitū.
- Note 2. Instead of the Ablative of Association, the Dative is sometimes used with verbs denoting Union or Contention:

Sapientia iuncta eloquentiae, wisdom united to eloquence; cf. C. Or. 3, 35, 142. Solus tibi certat, he alone competes with you; V. E. 5, 8.

3. A special use of the Ablative of Association is seen with facio, fio, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hōc homine faciās, what will you do with this man? C. Ver. 2, 16. Quid tē futūrum est, what will become of you? C. Ver. 2, 64, 155.

Note. — The Ablative with de occurs in nearly the same sense: Sed de fratre quid fiet, but what will become of my brother? T. Ad. 996.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE

475. Rule. — The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used without a preposition: 1

Gubernātōris ars ūtilitāte laudātur, the pilot's art is praised because of its usefulness; C. Fin. 1, 13. Quisque glōriā dūcitur, every one is influenced by glory. Lūxuriā cīvitās labōrābat, the state was suffering from luxury. Nimiō gaudiō dēsipiēbam, I was wild with (from) excessive joy. Rēgnī cupiditāte inductus coniūrātiōnem fēcit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Timōre perterritī ad Rhēnum contendērunt, moved by fear, they hastened towards the Rhine. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds; N. 1, 7, 5.

- 1. When the cause is fear, anger, hatred, etc., it is often combined with a Perfect Participle, as in the fifth and sixth examples.
- 2. Causā and grātiā, as Ablatives of Cause, are regularly limited by the Genitive or by a possessive or interrogative pronoun:

¹ The Ablative of Cause seems to have been developed in part from the Instrumental case and in part from the true Ablative.

Quem honoris grātiā nomino, whom I name as a mark of honor; C. Rosc. A. 2, 6. Vestrā hoc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account; C. Or. 1, 35, 164. Quā grātiā iussī, for what purpose did I give the order? T. Eun. 99.

- 3. Examine the following specimens of the Ablative of Cause, more commonly limited by an adjective or Genitive, consustudine, iure, lege, sententia, and Ablatives in u from verbal nouns: consustudine sua, in accordance with his own custom; mea sententia, according to or in my opinion; aliorum hortatu, at the request of others; hortatu suo, at his own request; populi iussu, at the bidding of the people.
- 4. Instead of the Ablative of Cause, the Ablative with **ā**, **ab**, **dē**, **ē**, **ex**, is sometimes used to emphasize the idea of Source, from which Cause was so readily developed, as **ex cōnsuētūdine suā**, in accordance with their custom; **ex sententiā** tuā, in accordance with your wish:

Mare a sole collucet, the sea gleams with the light of the sun (from the sun). Ex vulneribus periere, they perished of their wounds.

5. The Ablative with prace in classical Latin generally denotes a Hindrance or an Obstacle:

Non prae lacrimis possum scribere, I cannot write on account of my tears.

ABLATIVE OF MEANS

476. Rule. — The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition:

Ipse su. manū fēcit, he did it himself with his own hand. Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, buils defend themselves with their horns. Sōl omnia lūce collūstrat, the sun iilumines all things with its light. Terra vestīta flōribus, the earth covered with flowers. Lacte atque pecore vīvunt, they live upon milk and flesh; Caes. 4, 1. Aurēliā viā profectus est, he went by the Aurelian road; C. C. 2, 4. Portā Capēnā Rōmam ingressus, having entered Rome by the Porta Capena; L. 26, 10.

1. The Ablative of Means is used not only with verbs, but also with a few adjectives, as contentus, praeditus, and frētus:

Domō suā rēgiā contentus nōn fuit, he was not satisfied with his royal palace; C. Ver. 5, 31, 80. Homō summō ingeniō praeditus, a man endowed with the highest abilities. Neque hūmānīs cōnsilis frētus, nor depending upon human counsels; C. C. 2, 13.

2. Adfició with the Ablative of Means forms a very common circum-locution: honore adficere = honorare, to honor; cruciatu adficere, to torture:

Omnës laetitia adficit, he gladdens all; Caes. 5, 48. Adficitur beneficio, he is benefited; C. Agr. 1, 4.

3. This Ablative is used with fido, confido, nitor, innitor, assuesco, assuefacio, etc:

Nemo fortunae stabilitate confidit, no one trusts the stability of fortune; cf. C. Tusc. 5, 14, 40. Salūs vēritate nītitur, safety rests upon truth. Nūllo officio assuēfactī, trained to (familiar with) no duty; Caes. 4, 1. Sēsē castrīs tenēbant, they kept themselves in camp; Caes. 3, 24. Marium tēcto recēpērunt, they received Marius into their houses.

4. The following Ablatives deserve notice:

Quadrāgintā hostils sacrificāre, to make a sacrifice with forty victims; L. 41, 17. Facere vitulā, to make a sacrifice with a calf; V. E. 3, 77. Fidibus canere, to play upon the lyre; C. Tusc. 1, 2, 4. Pilā lūdere, to play ball (with the ball); H. S. 1, 5, 49.

ABLATIVE OF MEANS — SPECIAL USES

477. Rule. — I. The Ablative of Means is used with ator, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur atque ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things; C. N. D. 2, 60, 152. Fungitur officiō senātōris, he is discharging the duty of a senator. Māgnā erat praedā potītus, he had obtained great booty. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived (fed) on milk and flesh; N. 89, 7.

1. These deponent verbs are all survivals of the middle voice, and accordingly contain the direct object in themselves, while the Ablative is the means by which the action is effected; thus **ūtor**, *I use*, *I serve myself by means of*; fruor, *I enjoy*, *I delight myself with*, etc. Originally transitive, they are occasionally so used in classical authors:

Uteris operam meam, you shall have (use) my assistance; Pl. Poen. 1088.

- Ūtor admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:
 Facili mē ūtētur patre, he will find me an indulgent father; T. Heaut. 217.
- 3. Potior admits the Genitive:

Partis Siciliae potitus est, he became master of a part of Sicily; N. 10, 5.

II. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling and with adjectives of Fullness: abundo, redundo, adfluo, etc.; compleo, expleo, impleo, onero, etc.; onustus, refertus, plēnus, etc.:

Vīlla abundat lacte, cāseō, melle, the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey; C. Sen. 16, 56. Deus bonīs explēvit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings; C. Univ. 3, 5. Nāvēs onerant aurō, they load the ships with gold. Nāvēs frūmentō onustae, ships loaded with grain. Urbs referta cōpiīs, a city filled with supplies; C. Att. 7, 18.

 Compleō and impleō take either the Accusative and Genitive or the Accusative and Ablative:

Mē complēvit formīdinis, he filled me with fear; Pl. Men. 901. Ītaliam vestrīs colonis complēre voluistis, you wished to fill Italy with your colonists.

2. Most adjectives of Fullness occasionally admit the Genitive. With pl8-nus this is the regular construction in the best prose. In Cicero refertus takes the Genitive when used of persons, but the Ablative when used of things:

Erat Ītalia plēna Graecārum artium, Italy was full of Grecian arts; C. Arch. 8,5. Domus referta vāsīs Corinthiis, a house full of Corinthian vases; C. Rosc. A. 46, 183. Mare refertum praedōnum, a sea full of pirates; C. Rab. P. 8, 20.

III. The Ablative of Means is used with opus and tisus, often in connection with the Dative of the person:

Mīlitī nummīs ducentīs ūsus est, the soldier needs two hundred sesterces; Pl. Bac. 706. Auctoritāte tuā nobīs opus est, we need your influence. Consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation; S. C. 1.

Note. — With opus est, rarely with usus est, the thing needed may be denoted by the Nominative, or an Infinitive; rarely by the Genitive, a supine, or an ut-clause: 8

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader; C. Fam. 2, 6, 4. Opus est to valore, it is necessary that you be well; C. Fam. 16, 14. Temporis opus est, there is need of time; cf. L. 22, 51. Ita dictū opus est, it is necessary to say so; T. Heaut. 941. Mihl opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe; Pl. Truc. 328.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE AND VALUE

478. Rule. — Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives:

Aurō virī vītam vēndidit, for gold she sold her husband's life; C. Inv. 1, 50, 94. Fānum pecūniā grandī vēnditum est, the temple was sold for much

¹ Lit. there is to the soldier a use for or with two hundred sesterces.

² First in Livy.

8 In Plautus and late prose.

money. Multō sanguine Poenīs victōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to them at) much blood; L. 28, 30. Līs aestimātur centum talentīs, the fine is fixed at a hundred talents. Vēnālis decem mīlibus, for sale at ten thousand (sesterces); C. Cael. 7, 17.

Prāta māgnō aestimant, they value meadows highly. Quantī est aestimanda virtūs, how highly should virtue be valued? Quem plūrimī fēcerat, whom he had esteemed most highly; N. 18, 2. Vēnīre quam plūrimō, to be sold at as high a price as possible. Emit, he purchased? Quantī, for how much? Vīgintī minīs, for twenty minae; T. Eun. 984.

- 1. The Ablative of Price is used with verbs of Buying, Selling, Hiring, Letting; of Costing; of Being Cheap or Dear, as emō, vēndō, vēneō; condūcō, locō; stō, cōnstō, liceor, and with a few adjectives of kindred meaning, as vēnālis, for sale; cārus, dear; vīlis, cheap; see examples. With these words only five Genitives of Price are used: tantī, tantī-dem, quantī, plūris, and minōris.
- 2. With verbs of Valuing the following Genitives are used, parvī, māgnī, permāgnī, tantī, tantī-dem, quantī, plūris, plūrimī, minōris, minimī, etc.
- 3. Instead of the Ablative of Price, adverbs are sometimes used, as bene emere, to buy well (i.e. at a low price); bene vēndere, to sell well (i.e. at a high price).
- 4. Exchanging. With verbs of Exchanging mūtō, commūtō, etc. the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but, in poetry and late prose, the thing given is often treated as the price, as with verbs of buying:

Victor pāce bellum mūtāvit, the victor exchanged war for peace; S. C. 58, 15. Cūr valle permūtem Sabīnā dīvitiās, why should I exchange the Sabīne vale for riches? II. 3, 1, 47.

5. But with verbs of Exchanging, the thing given is sometimes designated by the Ablative with ${\bf cum}$ or ${\bf pr\bar{o}}$:

Cum patriae cărităte gloriam commutăre, to exchange love of country for glory; cf. C. Sest. 16, 87.

6. For a fuller treatment of the Genitive of Price, see 448.

ABLATIVE OF DIFFERENCE

- 479. Rule. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used
 - 1. With Comparatives and Superlatives:

Unō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day); C. Ver. 2, 52, 129. Sōl multīs partibus māior est quam

terra, the sun is very much (by many parts) larger than the earth; cf. C. N. D. 2. 36, 92. Tantō longior ānfractus, a circuitous route so much longer. Cōnspectus multō iūcundissimus, a sight by far the most pleasing.

2. With verbs and other words implying Comparison:

Multō mihī praestat, it is much better for me; C. Sest. 69, 146. Virtūtem omnibus rēbus multō antepōnunt, they much prefer excellence to everything else; cf. C. Fin. 4, 18, 51.

3. To denote Intervals of Time or Space:

Homērus annīs multīs fuit ante Rōmulum, Homer lived (was) many years before (before by many years) Romulus; C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucīs diēbus post mortem Āfricānī, a few days after the death of Africanus; C. Am. 1. Mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs cōnsēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp; Caes. 1, 48.

ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION

480. Rule. — A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agēsilāus nōmine, nōn potestāte, fuit rēx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power; N. 21, 1. Fuit claudus alterō pede, he was lame in one foot. Hī linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt, those differ from each other in language, institutions, and laws; Caes. 1, 1.

- Nātū and Supines in ū are often used as Ablatives of Specification:
 Minimus nātū omnium, the youngest of all. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell (in the telling).
- 2. The Ablative of Specification is often used with verbs of Measuring and Judging, to show in reference to what the statement is true:

Māgnōs hominēs virtūte mētimur, non fortūnā, we measure great men by (in reference to) their merit, not their success; N. 18, 1. Benevolentiam non ārdōre amōris, sed constantiā iūdicēmus, let us judge of good will, not by the glow of affection, but by its constancy.

- 3. The Ablative of Specification, in a strict sense, shows in what respect or particular anything is true, and, in a somewhat freer sense, in regard to what, in reference to what, it is true.
 - 4. For the Accusative of Specification, see 416.
- **481.** To the Ablative of Specification may be referred the Ablative with dignus and indignus:

Digni sunt amicitia, they are worthy of friendship; C. Am. 21, 79. Te honore indignissimum iudicat, he judges you most unworthy of honor; C. Vat. 16, 89.

1. In rare instances, mostly poetical, dignus and indignus occur with the Genitive:

Dignissimum tuae virtūtis, most worthy of your high character; cf. C. Att. 8, 15, A. Māgnōrum haud umquam indignus avorum, never unworthy of my great sires; V. 12, 649.

2. Dignor, as a passive verb meaning to be deemed worthy, takes the Ablative; but as a deponent verb meaning to deem worthy, used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honore dignantur, they are deemed worthy of honor; C. Inv. 2, 58, 161. Haud tall me dignor honore, not of such honor do I deem myself worthy; V. 1, 385.

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

- 482. The Locative and the Locative Ablative in a measure supplement each other. They include
 - 1. Ablative of Place, generally with the preposition in; see 483.
 - 2. Locative in Names of Towns; see 483.
 - 3. Ablative of Time; see 486.
 - 4. Ablative Absolute; see 489.

ABLATIVE OF PLACE

483. Rule. — The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in, but in names of Towns by the Locative:

Caesar duās legionēs in Galliā conscrīpsit, Caesar enrolled two legions in Gaul. In oppido obsidēbantur, they were besieged in the town. Exercitum in hibernis collocāvit, he placed the army in winter quarters.

Rōmae supplicātiō redditur, at Rome a thanksgiving is appointed; Caes. 7, 90. Alesiae obsidēbantur, they were besieged at Alesia. Dionysius Corinthī pueros docēbat, Dionysius taught boys at Corinth. Carthāgine rēgēs creābantur, at Carthage kings were elected; N. 28, 7. Aristīdēs Athēnīs fuit, Aristides was at Athens.

1. In the names of Towns, instead of the Locative, the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition, when qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun, and sometimes when not thus modified:

In Īllyricō, in ipsā Alexandrēā, in Illyria, in Alexandria itself; C. Att. 11, 16. Longā dominārī Albā, to hold sway at Alba Longa; V. 6, 766. In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque, 1 on the Alban mount and at Lavinium; L. 5, 59, 8.

¹ Here Lāvīniō is probably assimilated to the case of monte Albānō.

2. When oppido or urbe accompanies the name of the town in expressions of Place, if without a modifier, it takes the preposition in and is followed by the Ablative of the name; but if with a modifier, it follows the name, and is used either with or without the preposition:

In oppido Citio est mortuus, he died in the town Citium; N. 5, 3. Albae constiterunt, in urbe opportuna, they halted at Alba, a convenient city; C. Ph. 4, 2, 6. Corinthi, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia; Tac. H. 2, 1.

484. Like Names of Towns are used

1. Many Names of Islands and Peninsulas:

Conon Cypri vixit, Conon lived in Cyprus; N. 12, 3. Miltiades domum Chersonesi habuit, Miltiades had a house in the Chersonesus.

2. The Locatives domī, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, bellī, and a few others found in poets and late writers:

Et domi et militiae consilium praestabant, they showed their wisdom at home and abroad; C. Or. 3, 83, 134. Rūrī agere vitam constituit, he decided to spend his life in the country. Romae et domi tuae vivere, to live at Rome and in your house. Deprehensus domi Caesaris, caught in the house of Caesar; cf. C. Att. 1, 12. Tamquam alienae domi, as if in the house of another. Truncum reliquit harenae, he left the body in the sand; V. 12, 882.

Note 1. — **Domi** may be modified by a possessive, a Genitive, or aliënus, as in the examples; when any other modifier is required, the Ablative with in is generally used:

In privata domo furtum, a theft in a private house; C. C. 8, 7, 17.

Note 2. — Instead of dom! with its modifier, apud with an Accusative of the person may be used: apud mē = dom! meae, at my house:

Apud të fuit, he was at your house. Fuisti apud Laecam, you were at the house of Laeca; C. C. 1, 4.

- 485. The Locative Ablative is often used without a preposition:
- 1. When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Meō iūdiciō stāre mālō, I prefer to abide by my own judgment; C. Att. 12, 21. Prōmissīs manēre (poetical), to abide by promises; V. 2, 160. Nova pectore versat cōnsilia, she devises (turns over) new plans in her breast. Pendēmus animīs, we are perplexed in mind; C. Tusc. 1, 40, 96.

2. The Locative Ablative qualified by tōtus, and the Ablatives terrā and marī, especially in terrā marīque, are regularly used without the preposition; locō and locīs are generally so used; occasionally other Ablatives, especially when qualified by adjectives:

Manat tota urbe rumor, the report spreads through the whole city; L. 2, 49, 1. Nationibus terra marique imperare, to rule nations on land and sea; C. Man. 19, 56. Eodem loco nati sunt, they were born in the same situation; C. Rose. A. 51, 149. Reliquis oppidi partibus, in the remaining parts of the town.

3. In poetry and late prose, the Locative Ablative is freely used without the preposition:

Lūcis habitāmus opācis, we dwell in shady groves; V. 6, 678. Populus laetum theātris ter crepuit sonum, the people made the joyful applause thrice resound in the theater; H. 2, 17, 25.

4. By a difference of idiom, the Latin sometimes uses the Ablative with a, ab, ē, or ex, where the English would lead us to expect the Locative Ablative, but in such cases the Latin calls attention to the place from which the action proceeds: ā or ab dextrā, on the right (from the right):

Hās ab utroque latere protegēbat, these he protected on both sides; Caes. C. 1, 25. Continentur ūnā ex parte Rhēno, alterā ex parte, monte Iūrā, they are shut in by the Rhine on one side, by mount Jura on another; Caes. 1, 2. Ex equis pūgnāre visī sunt, they were seen to fight on horseback; C. N. D. 2, 2, 6.

5. Instead of the Locative Ablative, especially in plural names of tribes and peoples, the Accusative with apud or inter may be used:

Civitās māgnā inter Belgās auctoritāte, a state of great influence among the Belgae; Caes. 2, 15.

Note. — The Accusative with apud, meaning in the works of, is the regular form in citing authors:

Ille apud Terentium, that well-known character in the works of Terence; C. Fin. 5, 10, 28.

ABLATIVE OF TIME

486. Rule. — The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition:

Sõlis occāsū suās copiās Ariovistus redūxit, at sunset Ariovistus led back his forces; Cacs. 1, 50. Postero die lūce prīmā movet castra, on the following day at dawn he moves his camp. Bellum ineunte vēre suscēpit, he entered upon the war in the beginning of spring.

1. The Ablative of Time is found in the names of Games, Festivals, Offices, and in almost any words that may be used to denote time:

Liberālibus litterās accēpī tuās, I received your letter on the festival of Liber; C. Fam. 12, 25, 1. Consulātū dēvēnimus in medium certāmen, in my consulship I became involved in the midst of the strife; C. Or. 1, 1.

487. The Time Within Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative with or without in, sometimes with dē:

Ter in anno audire nuntium, to hear the tidings three times in the course of the year; C. Rose. A. 46, 132. In diebus proximis decem, within the next ten days. Nemo his annis viginti rei publicae fuit hostis, there has been no enemy of the republic within these twenty years. De tertia vigilia castra movet, in the third watch he moves his camp; cf. Caes. C. 1, 63.

1. The Ablative with in is often used to call attention to the Circumstances of the Time or the Condition of Affairs:

In periculosissimo rei publicae tempore, in a most perilous condition of the republic. In tali tempore, at such a time (i.e. under such circumstances).

2. The Accusative with inter or intrā, like the Ablative with in, may be used of the Time Within Which; the Accusative with ad or in, of an Appointed Time, and with ad or sub, of an Approaching Time:

Haec inter cenam dictavi, I dictated this during the dinner. Filium intra paucos dies amisit, within a few days he lost his son. Omnia ad diem facta sunt, all things were done on the appointed day; Caes. 2, 5. Ad cenam hominem invitavit in posterum diem, he invited the man to dinner for the next day. Sub vesperum exire, to go out towards evening.

- 488. The Interval between two events may be variously expressed:
 - 1. By the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post:

Classis post dies paucos venit, after a few days the fleet arrived. Paucos ante dies, a few days before. Homerus annis multis fuit ante Romulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus; C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucis ante diebus noluit, he declined a few days before. Paucis post annis, a few years after.

2. By the Accusative or Ablative with ante quam, post quam, or post, generally with an ordinal numeral:

Post diem tertium quam dixerat, three days after he had spoken; C. Mil. 16, 44. Anno ipso ante quam natus est Ennius, in the very year before Ennius was born. Nono anno post quam in Hispaniam venerat, in the ninth year after he had come into Spain; N. 22, 4, 2.

3. By the Ablative of a relative and its antecedent:

Mors Roscii quadriduo quo is occisus est nuntiatur, the death of Roscius is announced four days after he was killed; C. Rosc. A. 36, 104.

Note 1. — Prīdiē quam means on the day before, and postrīdiē quam, on the day after or a day later:

Postridië vënit, quam exspectăram, he came a day later than I had expected; C. Fam. 16, 14.

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Note 2.— The question how long ago? may be answered by the Accusative with abhinc:

Abhinc annos trecentos fuit, he lived three hundred years ago; C. Div. 2, 57, 118.

Note 3.—In rare instances the Ablative with abhinc is used like the Ablative with ante:

Abhinc diebus trīgintā, thirty days before; C. Ver. 2, 52, 185.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE 1

489. Rule.—A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning).² Cōnsulēs, rēgibus exāctīs, creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings,⁸ consuls were elected; L. 4, 4, 2. Caesar equitātū praemissō subsequēbātur, Caesar having sent forward his cavalry followed. Hōc dīcit, mē audiente, he says this in my hearing. Lēgātōs discēdere, nisi mūnītīs castrīs, vetuerat, he had forbidden his lieutenants to depart, unless the camp was fortified; Caes. 2, 20. Caelō serēnō obscūrāta lūx est,⁴ while the sky was clear, the sun (the light) was obscured; L. 87, 4, 4. L. Pīsōne, Aulō Gabīniō cōnsulibus, in the consulship of L. Piso and Aulus Gabinius.

- 1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, generally expresses the Time, Cause, or some Attendant Circumstance of the action. It is generally best rendered by a noun with a preposition—in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.; by an active participle with its object; or by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; see examples above.
- 2. A conjunction, as nisi, tamquam, etc., sometimes accompanies the Ablative, as in the fifth example.
- 3. The Ablative in this construction generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs, but exceptions occur:

Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduls trādit, having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedul; Caes. 6, 4.

¹ This Ablative is called Absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. In classical Latin it expresses both Instrumental and Locative relations.

² Or, while Servius was reigning, or, while Servius was king.

³ Or, after the kings were banished.

⁴ The construction by which a noun and an adjective, or two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding construction in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb, to be, is used.

4. In the Ablative Absolute, Perfect Participles of deponent verbs are generally found only in the poets and late writers. With an object they are first found in Sallust:

Sulla omnia pollicito, as Sulla promised everything; 8. 108, 7.

5. Two participles, or a participle and a predicate noun or adjective, are occasionally combined with a noun in the Ablative Absolute:

Agrō captō ex hostibus divisō, when the land taken from the enemy had been divided; L. 1, 46. Hasdrubale imperatore suffecto, when Hasdrubal succeeded as commander; N. 23, 3.

6. An Infinitive or Clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Alexander, auditō Dārēum mōvisse, pergit, Alexander having heard that Darius had withdrawn, advances; Curt. 5, 18. Multī, incertō quid vitārent, interiērunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid, perished; L. 28, 86.

- 7. A Participle or an Adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute: Multum certātō, 1 pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle; Tac. An. 11, 10.
- 8. Quisque or ipse in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:

Causā ipse pro sē dictā damnātur,² having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned; L. 4, 44, 10. Exercitus, multīs sibī quisque imperium petentibus, dilābitur,² while many seek the command, each for himself, the army goes to pieces; S. 18, 8.

9. Absente nobis, in my presence, in which nobis is used for me, is an instance of Synesis:

Quid absente nobis turbătumst (= turbătum est), what is the disturbance in my absence? T. Eun. 649.

ABLATIVE WITH PREPOSITIONS

490. Rule. — The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, he hastens to set out from the city. Ab hīs amātur, by these he is loved. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze.

¹ Here the participle is used impersonally, it having been much contested.

² In the first example ipse may be explained as belonging to the subject of damnātur, but in the second quisque has no grammatical connection with any other word in the sentence. A plausible view of the construction is that sibi quisque, which in certain connections has become almost a stereotyped formula, has been brought over unchanged into the Ablative Absolute from the clause which it represents.

Coram frequentissimo conventu, in the presence of the crowded assembly. Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori, it is sweet and seemly to die for one's country. Tauro tenus regnare iussus est, he was bidden to limit his realm by Mount Taurus (to reign as far as Taurus); cf. C. Delot. 13, 36.

- 1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: ab urbe, from the city; ex urbe, out of the city; in urbe, in the city; cum urbe, with the city; pro urbe, before the city or in behalf of the city.
 - 2. The following ten prepositions are used with the Ablative only:

```
ē. ex. out of, from
ā, ab, abs, from, by
                                  prae, before, in comparison with
absque,
          without
                                         before, for
cōram,
          in the presence of
                                  prō.
          with
                                  sine,
                                         without
cum.
          down from, from
                                  tenus, as far as
dē.
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Note 1.— $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ are used only before consonants, \mathbf{ab} and \mathbf{ex} before either yowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before $\mathbf{t\bar{e}}$.

Note 2.—Cum, when used with a Personal or a Relative Pronoun, is generally appended to it.

NOTE 3.— Tenus follows its case. Being in origin the Accusative of a noun, it often takes the Genitive; see 446, 5.

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

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in, into, in subter, beneath, under, towards sub, under, towards super, above, about, beyond
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In and sub with the Accusative after verbs of motion; with the Ablative after verbs of rest. Subter and super generally with the Accusative; subter with the Ablative rare and mostly poetical; super with the Ablative meaning concerning, of, on, used of a subject of discourse:

Hannibal exercitum in Italiam dūxit, Hannibal led an army into Raly. Quam diū in Ītalia fuit, as long as he was in Italy. Mīlitēs sub montem succēdunt, the soldiers approach towards the mountain. Sub pellibus hiemāre, to winter in camp (under skins). Subter mūrum hostium āvehitur, he is borne under the wall of the enemy. Subter dēnsā testūdine, under a compact testudo. Aquila super carpentum volitāns, an eagle flying above the carriage. Hāc super rē scribam, I shall write on this subject.

4. A few words, generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions, and are used with the Ablative, as intus, palam, procul, simul (poetic), and rarely clam:

Tali intus templo, within such a temple; V. 7, 192. Palam populo, in the presence of the people; L. 6, 14. Procul dubio, without doubt or far from doubtful; L. 39, 40. Simul his, with these; H. S. 1, 10, 86. Clam vobis, without your knowledge; Caes. C. 2, 32.

Summary of Constructions of Place and Space

- 491. I. The Names of Places are generally put
- 1. In the Accusative with ad or in to denote the Place to or into Which:

Exercitum in Italiam duxit, he led an army into Italy.

- 2. In the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex to denote the Place from Which: Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.
- 3. In the Locative Ablative with in to denote the Place at or in Which: Hannibal in Ītaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. In oppidō obsidēbantur, they were besieged in the town.
- II. The Names of Towns and words which follow their analogy are put
 - 1. In the Accusative to denote the Place to Which:

Lēgātī Athēnās missī sunt, ambassadors were sent to Athens. Ego rūs ībō, I shall go into the country.

2. In the Ablative to denote the Place from Which:

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, Demaratus fled from Corinth. Platōnem Athēnīs arcessīvit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Cum domō profūgisset, when he had fled from home.

3. In the Locative to denote the Place at or in Which:

Rōmae et domī tuae vīvere, to live at Rome and in your house. Cyprī vīxit, he lived in Cyprus.

- III. The common constructions of Space are as follows:
- 1. Extent of Space is denoted by the Accusative:

Agger altus pedēs octogintā, a mound eighty feet high.

2. Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Sol multis partibus maior est quam terra, the sun is very much larger than the earth.

3. Distance, when regarded as Extent of Space, is denoted by the Accusative, but when regarded as Measure of Difference, by the Ablative:

Septingenta mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk seven hundred miles. Mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs consēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp.

USE OF ADJECTIVES.

- 492. Adjectives in Latin correspond in their general use to adjectives in English.
- 1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun with one or more other modifiers: duae legiones novae, two new legions; naves longae veteres, old war vessels; columna aurea solida, a column of solid gold; oneraria navis maxima, a very large ship of burden.

Note. — In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined as in these examples; but if the first adjective is multī, the connective is usually inserted, though it is sometimes omitted, especially when one of the adjectives follows the noun: multae bonaeque² artēs, many good arts; multa et praeclāra² facinora, many illustrious deeds; multae līberae cīvitātēs, many free states, many republics; multa bella gravia, many severe wars.

493. Prolepsis, or Anticipation. — An adjective or a participle is sometimes applied to a noun, especially in poetry, to denote the result of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersās obrue puppēs, overwhelm and sink the ships (overwhelm the sunken ships); V. 1, 69. Scūta latentia condunt, they conceal their (hidden) shields; V. 3, 237.

- 494. Adjectives and Participles are often used Substantively in the plural. Thus:
- 1. Masculine Adjectives and Participles are used of persons; Neuter Adjectives, chiefly in the Nominative and Accusative, are used of things: fortes, divites, pauperes, the brave, the rich, the poor; multi, pauci, omnes, many, few, all; nostri, vestri, sui, our friends, your friends, their friends; spectantes, audientes, discentes, spectators, hearers, learners; bona, ütilia, futura, good things, useful things, future events; mea, nostra, omnia, my things, our things, all things.
- **495.** Adjectives and Participles are occasionally used Substantively in the singular. Thus:

¹ Here duae modifies not simply legiones, but legiones novae; so veteres qualifies naves longae, war vessels.

² Lit. many and good; many and illustrious.

⁸ Observe that submersas gives the result of the action denoted by obrue, and is not applicable to puppes until that action is performed; latentia likewise ves the result of condunt.

- 1. In the masculine in a collective sense, especially as a predicate Genitive after est, etc., and when accompanied by a pronoun: Rōmānus = Rōmānī, the Roman, the Romans; bonus, the good man, the good; sapientis est, it is the mark of a wise man or of wise men = it is wise; hīc doctus, doctus quīdam, this learned man, a certain learned man; hīc Rōmānus, Rōmānus quīdam, this Roman, a certain Roman.
- 2. In the neuter in the Nominative and Accusative, in the Partitive Genitive, and in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: bonum, a good thing, a blessing; malum, an evil thing, an evil; nihil bon, nothing (of the) good; nihil hūmān, nothing human; in futūrum, for the future; in praesent, at present.
- 3. Conversely a few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in tor and trīx: victor exercitus, victrīcēs Athēnae, a victorious army, victorious Athens; homō gladiātor, servus homō, a gladiator, a servant; populus lātē rēx, a people ruling far and wide.
 - 4. For the use of adjectives with the force of qualifying Genitives, see 437.
- 496. Equivalent to a Clause. Adjectives, like nouns in predicate apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Alterum vivum amāvi, alterum non odi mortuum, the one I loved while he was alive, the other I do not hate now that he is dead; C. Off. 8, 18. Ab homine numquam sobrio, from a man who is never sober; C. Ph. 2, 83.

497. Adjectives and Adverbs. — Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom requires adverbs or adverbial expressions:

Socrates venenum laetus hausit, Socrates cheerfully drank the poison; Sen. Prov. 3. Quod invitus facio, which I do unwillingly; C. Rosc. A. 42, 128. Castris se pavidus tenebat, he timidly kept himself in camp; L. 3. 26. In amore est totus, he is wholly in love. Erat ille Romae frequents, he was frequently at Rome. Senatus frequents convenit, the senate assembles in large numbers; C. Fam. 10, 12, 3.

- 1. The adjectives chiefly thus used are those expressive of Joy, Knowledge, and their opposites, laetus, libēns, invītus, trīstis, sciēns, īnsciēns, prūdēns, imprūdēns, etc.; also nūllus, sõlus, tõtus, ūnus, propior, proximus, etc.
- 2. A few adjectives of Time and Place are sometimes used in the same way, though chiefly in the poets:

Vespertinus pete tectum, at evening seek your abode; H. E. 1, 6, 20. Domesticus otior, I idle about the house; H. S. 1, 6, 127.

 Note the following special uses of such adjectives as prior, primus, princeps, postrēmus, ultimus, etc.: Est primus rogātus sententiam, he was the first to be asked his opinion; L. 37, 14. Princeps in proclium ibat, he was the first to go into battle; L. 21, 4.

- 4. Certain adjectives, as prīmus, medius, ultimus, summus, etc., may designate a part of an object; as prīma nox. the first part of the night; summus mons. the top of the mountain.
 - 5. In rare instances, adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Rectissime sunt omnia, all things are perfectly right; C. Fam. 9, 9. Nunc hominum mores, the character of the men of the present day; Pl. Pers. 885.

6. Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office:

Rēgulus consul iterum, Regulus when consul for the second time; cf. C. Off. 8, 26, 99.

498. Comparatives and Superlatives. — Latin Comparatives and Superlatives are generally best rendered by the corresponding English forms, but comparatives may sometimes be rendered by somewhat, unusually, too, i.e. more than usual, or more than is proper, while superlatives are sometimes best rendered by very:

Ego miserior sum quam tū, I am more unhappy than you. Senectūs est loquācior, old age is somewhat loquacious. Grātissimae mihī tuae litterae fuērunt, your letter was very acceptable to me. Quam māximus numerus, the largest possible number. Ūnus omnium doctissimus, without exception, the most learned of all. Quantam māximam vāstitātem potest ostendit, he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (as great as the greatest he can); L. 22. 3.

1. Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clārissimus, nōbilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illūstrissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order:

Pompēius, vir fortissimus et clārissimus, *Pompey, a man most brave and illustrious;* C. I. Ver. 15, 44. Equitēs Rōmānī, honestissimī virī, the *Roman knights, most honorable men;* C. C. 1, 8, 21.

499. Comparatives after Quam. — When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used may be connected by magis quam, the usual method in Cicero, or both may be put in the comparative:

Praeclārum magis est quam difficile, it is more admirable than difficult, or admirable rather than difficult; C. Q. Fr. 1, 1, 11. Ditiores quam fortiores, more wealthy than brave; L. 39, 1.

1. In a similar manner, two Adverbs may be connected by magis quam, or both may be put in the comparative:

Magis audacter quam parate, with more courage than preparation; C. Brut. 68, 241. Bellum fortius quam felicius gerere, to wage war with more valor than success.

2. The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered rather than:

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult.

3. In the later Latin, the positive sometimes follows quam, even when the regular comparative precedes, and sometimes two positives are used:

Vehementius quam caute appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously; cf. Tac. Agr. 4. Clari quam vetusti, illustrious rather than ancient.

4. For the use of comparatives before quam pro, see 471, 7.

USE OF PRONOUNS

500. Personal Pronouns. — The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast:

Nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, võs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants; Ad Her. 4, 58.

1. With quidem, the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:

Facis amice tū quidem, you act indeed in a friendly manner. Non dubitābam equidem, I did not doubt indeed.

2. A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nos for ego, noster for meus, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vidës nos multa conārī, you see that I attempt many things; C. Orator, 30, 105. Et nostra lectitas, and you often read my writings; C. Orator, 30, 105. Librum ad te mīsimus, I have sent the book to you; C. Sen. 1, 3.

3. In Plautus and in Horace, noster, our friend, occurs in the sense of ego:

Tū mē alienābis numquam quīn noster siem, you shall never make me to be any other than myself; Pl. Amph. 399. Subjectior in diem invidiae noster, I am daily more exposed to unpopularity; H. S. 2, 6.

4. Mei, tui, sui, nostri, and vestri are generally used as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum, as Partitive Genitives—though with

omnium, and in certain special expressions, nostrum and vestrum are used as Possessive Genitives:

Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī, you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself; C. C. 4, 9. Unī cuique vestrum, to every one of you; C. Ph. 5, 1. Commūnis parēns omnium nostrum, the common mother of us all; C. C. 1, 7. Quantus consensus vestrum, how great unanimity on your part (of you); C. Ph. 5, 1.

5. A Personal Pronoun with ab, ad, or apud may designate the Residence or Abode of a person:

Quisnam ā nobis egreditur foras, who is coming out of our house? T. Heaut. 561. Vēnī ad mē, I came to my house; C. Att. 16, 10. Rūrī apud sē est, he is at his residence in the country; cf. C. Or. 1, 49, 214.

501. Possessives, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed if they can be supplied from the context:

In eŏ studio aetātem consumpsi, I have spent my life in this pursuit. Sīc oculos, sīc ille manus ferebat, thus he moved his eyes, thus his hands. Mea domus tibi patet, mihi clausa est, my house is open to you, closed to me; C. Rosc, A. 50, 145.

1. Possessives sometimes mean appropriate, proper, favorable, propitious, as aliënus sometimes means unsuitable, unfavorable:

Ego anno meo consul factus sum, I was made consul in my own proper year (i.e. on reaching the legal age); cf. C. Brut. 94, 828. Ferunt sua flamina classem, favoring winds bear the fleet; V. 5, 892. Alieno loco proclium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable situation; Caes. 1, 15.

2. Remember that the Possessive is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of personal pronouns, and sometimes, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive; see 440, 2, Note 2:

Tuā suī memoriā dēlectātur, he is delighted with your recollection of him; C. Att. 13, 1, 3. Neque odiō id fēcit tuō, nor did he do it from hatred of you; T. Ph. 1016.

- 3. For the possessive in combination with a Genitive, see 446, 3.
- 502. Reflexive Use of Pronouns. The Personal and Possessive Pronouns may be used reflexively; sui and suus are regularly so used:

Mē ipse consolor, I comfort myself; C. Am. 3, 10. Ipse sē quisque diligit, every one loves himself. Anteposuit suam salūtem meae, he preferred his own safety to mine.

1. Reciprocal Use of Pronouns. — The reciprocal relation which objects often sustain to each other may be variously expressed, as by inter nos, inter vos, and inter so, each other, one another, together; by the reflexive sul with ipsi; by alius alium or alter alterum; and by repeating the noun in an oblique case:

Puerī amant inter sē, the boys love one another. Mīlitēs sibī ipsī sunt impedīmentō, the soldiers are a hindrance to one another. Alius alium domōs suās invītant, they invite one another to their homes. Hominēs hominibus ūtilēs esse possunt, men can be useful to men (i.e. to one another).

503. In simple sentences and in principal clauses, sui and suus generally refer to the subject:

Per sē quisque sibī cārus est, every one is by his own nature (per sē, through or of himself) dear to himself; C. Am. 21, 80. Caesar cōpiās suās dīvīsit, Caesar divided his forces.

1. As sul and suus generally refer to the subject, the demonstratives is, ille, etc., are generally used to refer to other words in the sentence:

Deum āgnōscis ex operibus ēius, you recognize God by (from) his works.

2. Synesis. — When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suI and suus may refer to that agent:

A Caesare invitor sibl ut sim legătus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be lieutenant to him; C. Att. 2, 18.

3. With such indefinite and impersonal expressions as the following, sul and suus refer to some indefinite person conceived as the author of the action:

Déforme est de se praedicare, 1 to boast of one's self is unseemly; C. Off. 1, 38, 187. Perventum ad suos erat, 1 they had come to their friends; L. 38, 8.

4. Suus, meaning his own, their own, fitting, etc., especially with quisque, and the plural of suus, meaning his friends, their friends, their possessions, etc., are used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Iūstitia suum cuique distribuit, Justice gives to every one his due (his own); C. N. D. 3, 15. Suo cuique iūdicio est ūtendum, every one must use his own judgment; C. N. D. 3, 1. Conserva tuis suos, for the sake of your friends, spare their friends; C. Lig. 11, 33.

504. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the Thought, Wish, or Purpose of the principal clause, as in the Infinitive clause, final

¹ Here observe that the reflexives se and suos refer to the indefinite agents of the action expressed by praedicare and perventum erat.

clause, indirect questions, and the like, sui and suus generally refer to the subject of the principal clause; in all other subordinate clauses, they generally refer to the subject of their own clause, and are called Direct Reflexives:

Sentit animus se vi sua moveri, the soul perceives that it is moved by its own power; C. Tusc. 1, 23, 55. Ubil drant ut sibi parcat, the Ubil ask him to spare them. Pervestigat quid sui cives cogitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Neminem cognovi poetam, qui sibi non optimus videretur, I have known no poet who did not seem to himself to be the best; C. Tusc. 5, 22, 68.

1. After verbs of Advising, Exhorting, etc., suI and suus generally refer to the Subordinate Subject, as the person in whose interest the advice is given:

Nervios hortatur ne sul liberandi occasionem dimittant, he exhorts the Nervii not to lose the opportunity of freeing themselves; Cass. 5, 38.

2. Two Reflexives. — Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the Principal subject, and another referring to the Subordinate subject:

Respondit něminem sěcum sine suž perniciě contendisse, he replied that no one had fought with him without (his) destruction; Caes. 1, 36.

3. When the Reflexive refers to the Subordinate subject, the Demonstrative or Determinative refers to the Principal subject:

Persuadent Tulingis uti oppidis suis exustis una cum iis proficiscantur, they persuaded the Tulingi that, having burned their towns, they should depart with them; Caes. 1, 5, 4.

4. Reflexives are sometimes used with participles, referring to the agent of the action implied in them:

Hunc rex except diffidentemque 1 rebus suis confirmavit, the king received him and encouraged him when he had lost confidence in his own strength; C. Man. 9, 23.

5. Reflexives are sometimes used idiomatically with a few prepositions, especially with per, propter, cum, in:

Valētūdinem ipsam propter sē expetēmus, we shall seek health for uself; C. Fin. 5, 17. Caesar Fabium cum suā 2 legione remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius with (having) his legion; Caes. 5, 58.

¹ Observe that if an equivalent subordinate clause be substituted for the participle diffidentem, as in the translation, the reflexive would be entirely in order, and would refer to the subject of its own clause.

² Observe that cum legione sua is equivalent to legionem suam habentem, in which the use of the reflexive is the same as that described above under number 4.

DEMONSTRATIVE PROPOUNS

505. Hic, iste, ille, are often called, respectively, demonstratives of the first, second, and third persons, as hic designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed; and ille, that which is remote from both:

Iovem, cūstodem hūius urbis, Jupiter the guardian of this (our) city. Mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Illos quos videre non possumus neglegis, you disregard those whom we can not see.

1. Hic designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro eruditus, educated not in the manner of the olden times, but in this our modern way; C. Brut. 85, 182.

- 506. Former and Latter. In reference to two objects previously mentioned,
- 1. Hic generally follows ille and refers to the latter object, while ille refers to the former:

Acerbos inimicos... eos amicos... illi verum saepe dicunt, hi numquam, bitter enemies... those friends... the former often speak the truth, the latter never; cf. C. Am. 24, 90.

2. Hic refers to the former object when that object is conceived of as near in thought, either because of its importance or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion. It may then stand either before or after ille:

Melior est certa pax quam spērāta victoria; haec in tuā, illa in deorum manū est, sure peace is better than hoped-for victory; the former is in your own hand, the latter in that of the gods; L. 80, 80. Senex... adulēscēns... ille vult diū vīvere, hīc diū vīxit, the aged man... the young man... the latter wishes to live a long time; the former has lived a long time; C. Sen. 19, 68.

507. Other Uses of Demonstratives. — Hic and tille are often used of what belongs to the immediate context:

Haec quae scribō et illa quae anteā questus sum, these things which I am writing and those of which I before complained; 8. 24, 9. His verbis epistulam misit, he sent a letter in these (the following) words; N. 2, 9, 1.

1. Hic et ille, ille aut ille, etc., this and that, that or that, are sometimes used in the sense one or two, one or another:

Hoc signum et illud, this statue and that, one or two statues.

2. Hic, as a demonstrative of the first person, is sometimes, especially in poetry, equivalent to meus or noster; and hic homo, rarely hic alone, to ego:

Suprā hanc memoriam, before our time (this memory); Cass. 6, 19. Hic homost (homo est) omnium hominum praecipuos, this man (myself) is the most favored of all men; Pl. Trin. 1115. Hunc hominem velles si trādere, if you were willing to introduce me (this man); H. S. 1, 9, 47.

3. Iste, as a demonstrative of the second person, is often applied to an opponent, or to a defendant in a court of justice; accordingly the idea of Disrespect or Contempt seems at times to be associated with it, though not strictly contained in the pronoun itself:

Quae est ista praetūra, what sort of praetorship is that of yours? C. Vec. 2, 18, 46. Animi est ista mollitia, non virtūs, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor.

4. Ille is often used of what is well known, famous, and in that sense it is sometimes in apposition with a Personal pronoun:

Magnus ille Alexander, that famous Alexander the Great; C. Arch. 10, 24. Ille ego liber, ille ferox tacui, I, that unrestrained, that fearless one, was silent.

5. Ille is sometimes nearly or quite redundant, especially with quidem:

Apollonius ille quidem suo consilio, sed etiam me auctore est profectus, Apollonius set out of his own free will indeed, but also with my advice; C. Fam. 13, 16. Qui venit, multum ille et terris iactatus et alto, who came, after having been much tossed about on land and sea; V. 1, 1.

6. A demonstrative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive or to a preposition with its case: hīc amor = amor hūius reī, the love of this; hacc cūra = cūra dē hōc, care concerning this:

Eā formīdine multī mortālēs Romānīs deditī obsidēs, from the fear of these things many were delivered as hostages to the Romans; 8.54, 6.

7. Adverbs derived from demonstratives share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hic plus mali est, quam illic boni, there is more of evil here than of good there; T. And. 720.

DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

508. Is and idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufügit; is est in provincia tua, Dionysius has fled; he is in your province. Homines id quod volunt credunt, men believe that which they

desire. Fecit idem quod fecerat Coriolanus, he did the same thing which Coriolanus had done.

1. The pronoun is is often understood before the relative or a Genitive:

Sunt qui censeant, there are those who think. Flebat uterque, pater de filii morte, de patris filius, each wept, the father over the impending death of the son, the son over (that) of the father; C. Ver. 1, 30.

2. Is with a conjunction is often used for emphasis, like the English and that too, and that indeed:

Unam rem explicabo, eamque maximam, one thing I will explain, and that too a very important one. Audire Cratippum, idque Athenis, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens; cf. C. Off. 1, 1.

3. Idem is sometimes best rendered also, at the same time, both, yet:

Qui fortis est, idem est fidens, he who is brave, is also confident. Cum optimam nātūram dei dicat esse, negat idem, etc., though he says that the nature of God is most excellent, he yet denies, etc.; C. N. D. 1, 43, 121. Rēx Anius, rēx idem hominum Phoebique sacerdos, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo: V. 3, 80.

4. Is ... qui means he ... who, such ... as, such ... that:

Tū es is quī mē ōrnāstī, you are the man (he) who has honored me. Ea est Rōmāna gēns quae victa quiescere nesciat, the Roman race is such that it knows not how to rest when vanquished; L. 9, 3.

5. Idem ... quI means the same ... who, the same ... as; Idem ... ac or atque, Idem ... et or que, Idem ... ut, Idem ... cum with the Ablative, the same ... as:

Animus të ergā Idem est ac fuit, the feeling toward you is the same as it was; T. Heaut. 265. Eodem mēcum patre genitus est, he is the son of the same father as I (with me); Tac. A. 15, 2.

509. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Quod ipse Caesar cognoverat, which Caesar himself had ascertained. Ipse pater fulmina molitur, the father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts. Ipse dixit; ipse autem erat Pythagoras, he himself said it; but he was Pythagoras.

1. Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject when no special emphasis rests on the object:

¹ Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. Ipse is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

Mē ipse consolor, I myself (not another) comfort myself. Ipse se quisque diligit, every one loves himself. Se ipse i interfecit, he himself killed himself. Se ipsum i interfecit, he killed himself (not another).

2. Ipse is sometimes accompanied by secum, with himself, alone, or by per se, by himself, unaided, in and of himself, etc.:

Aliud genitor secum ipse volutat, the father himself is pondering with himself another plan. Virtus est per se ipsa laudābilis, virtue itself is praiseworthy in and of itself.

- 3. Ipse is often best rendered by very:
- Sum profectus ipso illo die, I set out on that very day.
- 4. With numerals, ipse means just so many, just; so also in nunc ipsum, just at this time; turn ipsum, just at that time:

Trīgintā dies erant ipsī, it was just thirty days. Nunc ipsum sine tē esse non possum, just at this time I cannot be without you; C. Att. 12, 16.

- 5. Ipse, in the Genitive, with a possessive, means own, one's own:
- Contentus nostrā ipsorum amīcitiā, satisfied with our own friendship; C. Fam. 6, 16.
- 6. Ipse, in subordinate clauses, sometimes refers to the principal subject with the force of an emphatic suI or suus:

Legătos misit qui ipsi vitam peterent, he sent messengers to beg life for himself.

- 7. Ipse quoque and et ipse 2 are often best rendered also, likewise, even he:

 Ipsī quoque vultis, you also wish it. Alius Achilles nātus et ipse deā,
 another Achilles likewise (himself also) born of a goddess; V. 6, 89.
- 8. For the use of the Nominative ipse in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see 489, 8.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

510. The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun, sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Perūtilēs Xenophontis librī sunt; quos legite studiose, the books of Xenophon are very useful; read them attentively; C. Sen. 17, 59. Quī cum equitātā

¹ In the example with ipse, the emphasis is on the subject, he himself killed; in the example with ipsum, the emphasis is on the object, killed himself.

² Et ipse, not in Caesar, rare in Cicero, is found in poets, in Livy, and in late writers.

Helvētiorum proelium committunt, they engage in battle with the cavalry of the Helvetii; Caes. 1, 15, 2. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so; C. Mur. 1. 2.

1. Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other: hīc...quī, iste...quī, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words:

Quam quisque norit artem, in hac so exerceat, let every one practice (exercise himself in) the art which he understands. Istum² quem quaeris, ego sum, I am that person whom you seek; Pl. Curo. 419.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the relative may be expressed in both, or it may be expressed in the first, and omitted in the second, when the case of the two relatives is the same; or, finally, it may be expressed in the first, and followed by a demonstrative in the second:

Nos qui sermoni non interfuissemus et quibus Cotta sententias tradidisset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions; C. Or. 3, 4, 16. Dumnorigi, qui principatum obtinebat ac plebi acceptus erat, persuadet, he persuades Dumnorix, who held the chief authority, and who was a favorite of the common people (acceptable to); Caes. 1, 3, 5. Quae nec haberemus nec iis üteremur, which we should neither have nor use; C. Off. 2, 3, 12.

3. Several relatives may stand in successive clauses:

In mundo deus inest aliquis, qui regat, qui gubernet, qui cursus astrorum conservet, there is a God in the world, who rules, who governs, who preserves the courses of the stars; C. N. D. 1, 20, 52.

4. Relative with Adjective. — Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially Comparatives, Superlatives, and Numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Vāsa, quae pulcherrima viderat, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (which the most beautiful he had seen). Dē servis suīs, quem habuit fidēlissimum, mīsit, he sent the most faithful of the servants which he had.

5. When both antecedent and relative depend on the same preposition, and the two clauses have the same predicate, the preposition may be omitted before the relative:

Incidit in eandem invidiam, quam a pater suus, he incurred (fell into) the same unpopularity as his father; N. 5, 3.

¹ Observe that the relative clause contains the antecedent artem.

² Istum attracted into the case of the relative, see 399. 5.

⁸ Observe that, if the relative had been expressed, it would have been in the same case as qui in the first clause.

⁴ Observe that quam depends on the preposition in understood.

6. Relative clauses in Latin, with or without antecedents, are sometimes equivalent to nouns, adjectives, or participles in English, as, if qui audiunt, those who hear, hearers; hominės qui nunc sunt, men of the present generation, our contemporaries; ii, quos supra dixi, the above-mentioned persons:

Politus iis artibus, quas qui tenent, eruditi appellantur, accomplished in those arts whose possessors are called learned; C. Fin. 1, 7, 26.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vocătur, or the corresponding active, quem dicunt, quem vocant, etc., are often used in the sense of so called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra, quae dicitur, vita mors est, your so-called (your which is called) life is death. Lex ista, quam vocas, non est lex, that law, as you call it, is not a law; C. Dom. 19, 50.

8. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with pro. Quae tua prūdentia est = quā es prūdentiā = pro tuā prūdentiā means such is your prudence, or in accordance with your prudence:

Spērō, quae tua prūdentia est, tē valēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.); C. Att. 6, 9, 1.

9. The neuter quod, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning of a sentence or clause, especially before sī, nī, nisi, etsī, and sometimes before quia, quoniam, utinam, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating, it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by now, in fact, but, and:

Quod sī forte ceciderint, but if, perchance, they should fall; C. Am. 15, 58. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, now, if I had learned this sooner; T. And. 258.

10. The neuter quicquid, of the general relative, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Matres et quicquid tecum invalidum est delige, select the mothers and whatever feeble persons there are with you; V. 5, 715.

11. The Relative Adverbs quō, ubǐ, and unde are sometimes used of persons, instead of relative pronouns with prepositions:

Apud eos quo se contulit, among those to whom he betook himself. Is unde te audisse dicis, he from whom you say that you heard it; C. Or. 2,70, 285,

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

511. The Interrogatives quis and quid are generally used as substantives, who? what person? what? what thing? Qui and quod are generally used as adjectives, what? of what kind, sort, or character?

Quis clarior Themistocle, who more illustrious than Themistocles? Quis ego sum, who am I? Quid ego dico, what am I saying? Qui locus est, quod tempus, what place is there? what time? In qua urbe vivimus, in what sort of a city are we living?

1. This distinction between quis and qui, quid and quod, was almost or quite unknown in early Latin, and it is not always observed even by Cicero:

Quis homō tē rapit, what man is seizing you? Pl. Rud. 870. Quis rēx umquam fuit, what king was there ever? C. Div. 1, 48, 95.

2. Which of two is generally expressed by uter. Which one of a larger number is expressed by quis:

Quaeritur, ex duobus, uter dignior; ex pluribus, quis dignissimus; of two, we ask, which is the more worthy; of a larger number, who is the most worthy; Quint. 7, 4, 21.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudăvit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (who defrauded whom)? C. Rosc. C. 7, 21.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the Interrogative Pronoun:

Qui tantus fuit labor, what so great labor was there ? C. Dom. 11, 27.

5. Quid, why? how is that? is often used adverbially, or stands apparently unconnected: quid enim, why then? what then? what indeed? quid ita, why so? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid sī, what if?

Loquere, quid vēnistī, say, why have you come? Quid? nonne respondēbis, what? will you not reply? Quid quod delectantur, what of the fact that they are delighted? C. Fin. 5, 19, 52.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

512. Quis, ali-quis, quis-piam, and qui-dam may be conveniently grouped together. Of these, quis, any one, is the most indefinite, and quidam, a certain one, the least indefinite, while aliquis and quispiam, some one, not distinguished from each other in meaning, are less indefinite than quis, but more so than quidam:

Sī qua cīvitās fēcisset aliquid ēius modī, if any state had done anything of this kind. Num quid vīs aliud, do you wish anything else? Ponere iubēbam, dē quō quis audīre vellet, I asked any one to name the subject about which he (any one) might wish to hear; C. Tusc. 1, 4, 7. Forsitan aliquis ēius modī quippiam fēcerit, perhaps some one may have done something of the kind. Est aliquod nūmen, there is a divinity. Accurrit quīdam, nōtus mihī nōmine tantum, a certain one runs up, known to me only by name; H. S. 1, 9, 3.

- 1. Quis as a substantive, and qui as an adjective, are used chiefly after sī, nisi, nē, num, and in Relative clauses; see the first three examples above. They sometimes stand in the relative clause, even when logically they seem to belong to the antecedent clause, as in the third example.
- 2. Most of the forms of aliquis may be used either as nouns or as adjectives, but aliquid is a noun, and aliquod an adjective. Aliquis and aliquis sometimes mean some person or thing of importance, note, or value:

Audē aliquid, sī vīs esse aliquis, dare something, if you wish to be anybodu: Iuv. 1. 78.

3. Aliquis seems at times to mean many a one:

Dixerat aliquis sententiam, many a one had expressed his opinion; Caes. C. 1, 2.

4. Aliquis is sometimes used with numerals to denote an approximate number, chiefly in familiar Latin:

Aliquos viginti dies, some twenty days.

5. Quīdam, with an adjective, is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:

Est glöria solida quaedam res, glory is a somewhat substantial thing.

- 6. Quidam with quasi has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:
- Quasi quaedam Socratica medicina, a kind of Socratic medicine, as it were.
- 7. Nesciō quis and nesciō qui often supply the place of indefinite pronouns, especially in poetry:

Hīc nesciō quis loquitur, here some one (I know not who) speaks.

513. Quis-quam, any one whatever, is more general in its meaning than the simple quis, any one. This pronoun and the pronominal adjective ullus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences, implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam ibl agnovit, and no one whatever recognized me there; C. Tusc. 5, 36, 104. Num censes allum animal sine corde esse posse, do you think that any animal can be without a heart?

1. Nēmō is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used as a noun, though with the designations of persons it may be used as an adjective:

Aut nēmō aut Catō sapiēns fuit, either no one or Cato was wise. Nēminem cōgnōvī poētam, I have known no poet; C. Tusc. 5, 22.

2. Nüllus, the negative of üllus, is generally used as an adjective, though it regularly supplies the Genitive and Ablative of nēmō:

Nulla aptior persona, no more suitable person. Neminem laesit; nullius auris violavit, he has injured no one; he has shocked no one's ears; C. Mur. 40. 87.

3. Nüllus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:

Philotīmus nūllus vēnit, Philotimus did not come : C. Att. 11, 24.

GENERAL INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

514. Quivis and quilibet mean, any one you wish, any one you please, any one whatever; quisque, every one, each one:

Quivis hērēs pecūniam potuit auferre, any heir whatever might take the money. Quidlibet faciat, let him do what he likes. Quod quisque dixit, what every one said.

- 515. Quisque is very freely used in Latin, but chiefly as follows:
 - 1. After Reflexive, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns:

Ipse se quisque diligit, every one loves himself. Defendat quod quisque sentit, let every one defend his convictions (what he thinks). Interest quos quisque audiat, it makes a difference whom each one hears; C. Brut. 58, 210.

2. After Superlatives and Ordinals, where it is generally best rendered by all, every; with primus by very, possible:

Epicureāns. Quīntō quōque annō, every four years (every fifth year). Prīmō quōque tempore, at the earliest possible opportunity, the very first.

3. After unus, as in unus quisque, every one, every person:

Ego novi et unus quisque vestrum, I know and every one of you knows.

4. Observe that in all these examples, quisque follows the word with which it is associated. This is the usual order, but the reflexive often follows in poetry, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Quod est cūiusque māximē suum, which is especially one's own; C. Off. 1, 81.

5. Ut quisque . . . ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the more . . . the more :

Ut quisque sibl plūrimum confidit, ita māximē excellit, the more confidence one has in one's self, the more one excels; C. Am. 9, 30.

6. Quotus quisque means, how rarely one, how few:

Quotus quisque disertus est, how rarely is one eloquent, or how few are eloquent? C. Planc. 25, 62.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

516. Alius means another, other; alter, the one, the other (of two), the second, a second. They are often repeated: alius...alius, one ... another; alii ... alii, some ... others; alter ... alter, the one ... the other; alteri ... alteri, the one party ... the other:

Aliud est male dicere, aliud accūsāre, it is one thing to revile, another to accuse. Alii gloriae serviunt, alii pecūniae, some are slaves to glory, others to money. Altera (fīlia) occīsa, altera capta est, one daughter was slain, the other captured; Caes. 1, 53. Hamilcar, Mārs alter, Hamilcar, a second Mars; L. 21, 10, 8. Alteri dimicant, alteri timent, one party fights, the other fears.

1. Alius and alter repeated in different cases, or combined with alias or aliter, form various idiomatic expressions, which, if judged by the English standard, would seem to be elliptical:

Alius alium domōs suās invītant, they invite one another to their homes; S. 66, 3. Aliter aliī vīvunt, some live in one way, others in another; C. ad Brut. 1. 13. Illī aliās aliud sentiunt, they entertain one opinion at one time, another at another; C. Or. 2, 7.

2. The derivative adverbs, alias and aliter, are sometimes repeated as correlatives, alias . . . alias, at one time . . . at another time, aliter . . . aliter, in one way . . . in another way :

Alias beatus est, alias miser, at one time he is happy, at another, unhappy; cf. C. Fin. 2, 27, 87.

3. After alius, aliter, and the like, atque, ac, and et often mean than, and nisi, than or except:

Non alius essem atque nunc sum, I would not be other than I am; C. Fam. 1, 9, 21. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta vidētur, nothing except (other than) peace seems to have been sought; cf. C. Off. 1, 23, 80.

4. Uterque means both, each of two. In the plural it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Uterque, mater et pater, domi erant, both, mother and father, were at home. Utrique victoriam crudeliter exercebant, both parties made a cruel use of victory. \overline{E} castris utrisque, out of both camps.

5. Uterque standing in two different cases may mean one . . . the other or one another: each . . . the other:

Cum uterque utrique esset in conspectu, since they were in sight of one another; Caes. 7, 85.

SYNTAX OF VERBS

USE OF VOICES, NUMBERS, AND PERSONS

517. The Voices in Latin correspond in their general meaning and use to the Active and Passive Voices in English, but originally the Passive Voice had a reflexive meaning, like the Greek Middle, and was equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun, a meaning which is still retained in a few yerbs, especially in poetry:

Lavantur in flüminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers; Caes. 4, 1. Carne vescēbantur, they lived upon (fed themselves with) flesh; 8.89. Galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet; V. 2, 892. Capita vēlāmur, we veil our heads; V. 8.545.

518. Passive Construction. — With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Ā deō mundus aedificātus est, the world was made by God.

1. Intransitive verbs have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive:

Curritur ad praetōrium, they run to the praetorium (there is running); C. Ver. 5, 85, 92. Mihī cum ils vīvendum est quōs vīcī, I must live with those whom I have conquered; C. C. 8, 12.

2. Some verbs, otherwise intransitive, occasionally form a personal passive in poetry:

Ego cūr, adquīrere pauca sī possum, invideor, why am I envied if I am able to add a few words? II. A. P. 55. Nunc tertia vīvitur aetās, I am now living in the third age (the third age is being lived); O. M. 12, 188.

3. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the meaning of the Active, or Middle. They have, however, certain forms of the Active; see 222:

Hōc mirābar, I wondered at this. Plūrimis rēbus fruimur, we enjoy (delight ourselves with) many things.

4. For Semi-Deponent Verbs, see 224.

PERSON AND NUMBER

519. In Latin an individual is regularly addressed in the singular, but the writer, or speaker, often refers to himself in the plural; see 500, 2:

Sīc rārō scribis, you write so seldom. Dē cēteris saepe dicēmus, I shall often speak of the other things; C. Sen. 1, 3.

1. For the Use of Voice, Number, and Person in Designating a General or Indefinite Subject, you, we, people in general, see 388, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE THREE FINITE MOODS

520. The Indicative Mood, alike in present, past, and future time, represents the action of the verb as an actual fact:

Gloria virtutem sequitur, glory follows merit. Quoniam de genere belli dixi, nunc de magnitudine dicam, since I have spoken of the character of the war, I shall now speak of its magnitude.

521. The Subjunctive Mood represents the action of the verb, as Possible, as Desired, or as Willed:

Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire; C. Rosc. A. 2, 5. Valeant cīvēs meī, may my fellow citizens be well. Suum quisque noscat ingenium, les every one learn to know his own character; C. Off. 1, 31, 114.

522. The Imperative Mood, like the Subjunctive, represents the action as willed or desired, but it is used almost exclusively in Commands and Prohibitions. Accordingly, in these the Imperative and Subjunctive supplement each other; see 560:

Valetūdinem tuam cūrā, take care of your health. Salūs populi suprēma lēx estō, the safety of the people shall be (let it be) the supreme law; C. Leg. 3, 3. Nolī imitārī malos medicos, do not imitate incompetent physicians; C. Fam. 4, 5, 5.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

523. Rule.—The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Römulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annös, Romulus reigned thirtyseven years. Nõnne nöbilitärī volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Sī haec cīvitās est, if this is a state.

- 1. The Indicative thus treats of facts, not only in the form of statements, as in the first example, but also in the form of questions, as in the second, and of conditions or assumptions, as in the third.
- **524.** The Indicative, though more common in Principal Clauses, is also used in Subordinate Clauses, but only in treating of Facts. Thus
 - 1. In Relative Clauses:

Hominës id, quod volunt, crëdunt, men believe that which they wish.

For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 589.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Si haec civitas est, if this is a state.

For the Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences, see 573.

3. In Adversative and Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam festinās, non est mora longa, although you are in haste, the delay is not long.

For the Subjunctive in Adversative and Concessive Clauses, see 586.

4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplicatio decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 598.

5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 600.

- 525. Special Uses. Notice the following special uses of the Indicative, apparently somewhat at variance with the English idiom:
- 1. In expressions of Duty, Propriety, Ability, and the like; hence in the Periphrastic Conjugations, especially in conditional sentences:

Eum contumēliis onerāsti, quem colere dēbēbās, 1 you have loaded with insults one whom you ought to have revered; C. Phil. 2, 38. Non suscipi bellum oportuit, 1 the war should not have been undertaken; L. 5, 4. Multos possum 1 bonos viros nomināre, I might name (I am able to name) many good men; C. Tusc. 2, 19. Relictūrī agros erant, 1 nisi litterās mīsisset, they

In these examples, the peculiarity in the use of the Indicative is only apparent. Here, as elsewhere, it deals only with facts. Thus, quem colere debeds, whom it was your duty, in fact, to revere; oportuit, it was actually proper that the war should not be undertaken; possum, I am able, etc.; relicturi erant, they were about to leave, or on the point of leaving.

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would have left their lands if he had not sent a letter; C. Yer. 3, 52. Hase condicion non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted.

2. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, iūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, it would be tedious; melius erat, it would have been better:

Longum est omnia ënumerare proelia, it would be tedious (it is a long task) to enumerate all the battles; N. 23, 5. Melius fuerat, promissum non esse servatum, it would have been better (it had been better) that the promise should not have been kept; C. Off. 3, 25.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled, or by assuming the suffix cumque, and the Conjunctions sive . . . sive, take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiëns, whoever he may be (is), he is wise; C. Tusc. 4,17. Hoc ultimum, utcumque initum est, proelium fuit, this, however it may have been begun, was the last battle; L.: 6. 6. Veniet tempus, sive retractabis, sive properabis, the time will come whether you may be reluctant or in haste; C. Tusc. 1, 31, 76.

4. The Historical Tenses of the Indicative, particularly the Pluperfect, are sometimes used for effect, to represent, as an actual fact, something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vicerāmus, nisi recēpisset Antonium, we should have (we had) conquered, had he not received Antony.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

- 526. The Latin, like the English, distinguishes three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future: legō, I am reading; legēbam, I was reading; legam, I shall be reading.
- 527. In each of the three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented in three different ways. It may be Incomplete, Completed, or Indefinite. An action is said to be Indefinite when it is viewed in its simple occurrence without reference to duration or completion.
- 528. The Latin has special forms for Incomplete and Completed action, but it has no special forms for Indefinite action, as is shown in the following:

Table of Tenses

Тіме	Action			
	Incomplete	Completed	Indefinite	
Present .	Pres. legō, I am reading	Perf. lēgī, I have read	Pres. legō, I read	
Past	Imperf. legēbam, I was reading	Pluperf. lēgeram, I had read	Hist. perf. legī, I read	
Future .		Fut. perf. legero, I shall have read	Fut. legam, I shall read	

1. In this table, observe that Indefinite action for Present and Future time is denoted by the Present and Future tenses, and for Past time by the Historical Perfect.

Note. — Observe that the Present and Future may denote either Incomplete action, I am reading, I shall be reading, or Indefinite action, I read, I shall read; and the Perfect, either Completed action in Present time, I have read, or Indefinite action in Past time, I read.

530. All the tenses for Incomplete action, the Present, Imperfect, and Future, may denote an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Sēdābant tumultūs, they were trying to quell the seditions. Expōnam cōnsilium, I shall attempt to explain my plan.

531. In the Periphrastic Conjugation, the tenses of the verb sum preserve their usual force, and the meaning of any periphrastic form is readily obtained by combining the proper meaning of the participle with that of the tense. Thus the Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes a present intention, or an action about to take place, and the Perfect, a past intention, or an action which was about to take place; the Present of the Passive Periphrastic denotes a present necessity or duty, and the Perfect, a past necessity:

Bellum scriptūrus sum, I am about to write the history of the war. Quid futūrum fuit, what would have been (was about to be) the result? Ea facienda sunt, those things ought to be (must be) done. Hace condicio non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been (was not one that ought to be) accepted; C. Att. 8, 8, 8.

I. Present Indicative

- 532. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time. It is used
- 1. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicero valemus, Cicero and I are well.

2. Of actions and events which belong to all time, as, for instance, of general truths and customs:

Nihil est virtūte amābilius, nothing is more lovely than virtue; C. Am. 8, 28. Fortēs fortūna adiuvat, fortune helps the brave; T. Ph. 208.

3. Of past actions and events which the writer, transferring himself to the past, represents as taking place before his eyes. It is then called the Historical Present, and is generally best rendered by a past tense, as the Historical Present is much more common in Latin than in English:

Duās ibi legionēs conscribit, he there enrolled two legions. Caes. 1, 10. Vāllo moenia circumdat, he surrounded the city with a rampart.

533. Special Uses.—1. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after iam did, iam düdum, etc.:

Iam diū īgnōrō quid agās, I have not known for a long time how you are; C. Fam. 7, 9.

2. The Present is sometimes used of an action really Future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prendimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? V. 2, 322. Si vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be well; S. C. 58, 9.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates as discussing; C. N. D. 1, 12, 31.

4. With dum, while, the Historical Present is generally used, but with dum meaning as long as, each tense has its usual force:

Dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar; Caes. 1, 46. Vixit, dum vīxit, bene, he lived well as long as he lived; T. Hec. 461.

II. Imperfect Indicative

- 534. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time. It is used
 - 1. Of actions going on at the time of other past actions:

An tū erās consul, cum mea domus ārdēbat, or were you consul when my house was burning? C. Pis. 11, 26.

2. In lively descriptions of scenes, or events:

Ante oppidum plānities patēbat, before the town extended a plain. Fulgentes gladios videbant, they saw the gleaming swords; C. Tusc. 2, 24, 59.

3. Of Customary or Repeated actions and events, often best rendered was wont, etc.:

Epulābātur more Persārum, he was wont to banquet in the Persian style.

535. Special Uses.—1. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with iam, iam did, iam dūdum, etc.¹:

Domicilium Romae multos iam annos habebat, he had already for many years had his residence at Rome; cf. C. Arch. 4, 7.

2. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect, where the English idiom requires the Present ²:

Pästum animantibus nätüra eum, qui cuique aptus erat, comparävit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each.

- 3. For the Imperfect of an Attempted Action, see 530.
- 4. For the Imperfect in letters, see 539, 1.
- 5. For the Descriptive Imperfect in Narration, see 538, 2.

III. Future Indicative

536. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scribam ad të, I shall write to you. Numquam aberrabimus, we shall never go astray.

Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

² This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth, or the scene, is viewed not from the present, as in English, but from the past.

1. The Future, like the Present, is sometimes used of General Truths and Customs:

Nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow (shall follow) nature, we shall never go astray.

2. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Cūrābis et scrībēs, you will take care and write.

IV. Perfect Indicative

- 537. The Perfect Indicative performs the duties of two tenses, originally distinct.
- 1. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war.

2. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, corresponding to the Greek Aorist, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason.

538. Special Uses.—1. The Perfect is sometimes used to contrast the past with the present, implying that what has been or was true in the past is not true at present. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with ful:

Habuit, non habet, he had, but he has not; C. Tusc. 1, 86. Fuit Ilium, Ilium has been, or was; V. 2, 325. Bis Iānus clausus fuit, Janus has been twice closed; L. 1, 19.

2. In Animated Narrative the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, veste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur more Persārum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, and feasted in the Persian style; N. 4, 3, 1.

3. Conjunctions meaning as soon as, after, — ubi, simul atque, post-quam, posteāquam, etc., — when used of past actions, are generally followed by the Perfect or by the Historical Present. The Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the Result of a Completed action:

Ubi certiores facti sunt, as soon as they were informed; Caes. 1, 7. Simul atque introductus est, as soon as he was introduced. Posteāquam in Formiānō sum, as soon as I am in my Formian villa. Simul atque in oppidum vēnerat, as soon as he had come into a town; C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

4. Many Latin Perfects may denote either a completed action or the Present Result of that action. Thus cognovi may mean either I have learned or I know; consuevi, I have accustomed myself or I am wont; doctus sum, I have been taught or I am learned. In this and similar cases the Participle practically becomes an Adjective. In a few of these verbs the second meaning has mostly supplanted the first, so that the Perfect seems to have the time of the Present, the Pluperfect that of the Imperfect, and the Future Perfect that of the Future:

Novi omnem rem, I know the whole thing. Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past. Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Fuit doctus ex disciplina Stoicorum, he was instructed in (out of) the learning of the Stoics; C. Brut. 25, 94.

5. The Perfect is sometimes used of General Truths, Repeated Actions, and Customs. It is then called the Gnomic Perfect²; and if it is used in a Subordinate clause, the Present is generally retained in the Principal clause, though in Poetry and Late Prose the Perfect sometimes occurs:

Pecuniam nemo sapiens concupivit, no wise man too eagerly desires (has desired) money; S. C. 11, 3. Omnia sunt incerta, cum a iure discessum est, all things are uncertain, whenever one departs from the right; C. Fam. 9, 16. Omne tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulci, he wins (has won) every vote who combines the useful with the agreeable; H. A. P. 843.

6. The Perfect with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brūtum non minus amo, paene dixī, quam tē, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, than I love you; C. Att. 5, 20.

7. For the Perfect in letters, see 539, 1.

V. Pluperfect Indicative

539. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at the time of some other past action, either already mentioned or to be mentioned in a subsequent clause:

Pyrrhī temporibus iam Apollo versūs facere desierat, in the time of Pyrrhus, Apollo had already ceased to make verses. Copias quas pro oppido collocaverat, in oppidum recipit, he received into the town the forces which he had stationed in front of the town.

¹ Literally has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act; the English, the result.

² This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek.

1. In letters the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past. This change — which is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer — is most common near the beginning and the end of letters:

Nihil habēbam quod scriberem; ad tuās omnēs rescripseram prīdiē, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday; C. Att. 9, 10. Prīdiē Īdūs haec scripsi; eō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus, I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius; C. Q. Fr. 2, 3, 7.

Note. — Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. Heri, yesterday, becomes to the reader pridie, the day before, i.e. the day before the writing of the latter. In the same way hodie, to-day, this day, becomes to the reader eo die, that day.

2. The Pluperfect after cum, sī, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs:

Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fecerat, hostes refugiebant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated; Cass. 5, 35.

3. The Pluperfect may state what had been true at some previous past time, implying that it was no longer true at the time of the writer. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with fueram:

Pons, qui fuerat interruptus, paene erat refectus,² the bridge which had been broken down was (had been) almost repaired.

- 4. For the special use of the Pluperfect in general, see 525, 4.
- 5. For the Pluperfect of Special verbs, see 538, 4.

VI. Future Perfect Indicative

540. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rômam cum vēnerō, quae perspexerō, scrībam ad tē, when I reach (shall have reached) Rome, I shall write you what I have (shall have) ascertained; C. Q. Fr. 3, 7. Ut sēmentem fēcerīs, ita metēs, as you sow (shall have made the sowing), so shall you reap; C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Plūra scrībam, sī plūs ōtiī habuerō, I shall write more if I have (shall have had) more leisure; C. Fam. 10, 28.

¹ The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of future events which are expected to happen before the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

² Observe that it was no longer a broken (interruptus) bridge, as it had been repaired (refectus).

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the Complete Accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestitero, I shall discharge (shall have discharged) my duty; Caes. 4, 25.

2. The examples here given of the Future Perfect, together with those of the Future under 536, illustrate the fact that the Latin is very exact in expressing future time and completed action, while the English, in subordinate clauses, and especially in conditional clauses, often disregards both.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

- **541.** The four tenses of the Subjunctive perform the duties of the six tenses of the Indicative, and are, accordingly, used as follows:
- 1. They have in general the same temporal meaning as the corresponding tenses of the Indicative:

Sunt qui dicant, there are some who say; S. C. 19. Fuëre qui crederent, there were some who believed; S. C. 17. Oblitus es quid dixerim, you have foryotten what I said; C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Caesari cum id nüntiātum esset, when this had been announced to Caesar; Caes. 1, 7.

2. In addition to this general use, these four tenses supply the place of the Future and of the Future Perfect, the Present and the Imperfect supplying the place of the Future; the Perfect and the Pluperfect, that of the Future Perfect, but chiefly in subordinate clauses denoting relative time, though the Present, even in principal clauses, often embraces both present and future time:

Erit tempus cum dēsīderēs, the time will come when you will desire; C. MII. 26, 69. Loquēbantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, sēsē non esse pūgnātūros, they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it; Caes. C. 1. 72. Egestātem suam sē lātūrum putat, sī hāc suspicione līberātus sit, he thinks he will bear his poverty if he shall have been freed from this suspicion; C. Rose. A. 44. Dīcēbam, simul ac timēre dēsīssēs, similem tē futūrum tuī, I was saying that as soon as you should cease (shall have ceased) to fear, you would be like yourself; C. Phil. 2, 35.

Note 1.—But the place of the Future may be supplied by the Present and Imperfect of the active Periphrastic Conjugation, and is generally so supplied when the idea of future time is emphatic; see Table of Subjunctive Tenses, 544.

Note 2.—In the passive, the place of the Future Perfect is sometimes supplied by futurus sim and futurus essem with the Perfect Participle:

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Non dubito quin confecta iam res futura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished; C. Fam. 6, 12, 3.

3. By a transfer of tenses, the Imperfect Subjunctive, in Conditional Sentences and in expressions of Wish, refers to Present time, and the Pluperfect to Past time:

Plūra scriberem, sī possem, I would write more (i.e. now) if I were able (but I am not); C. Att. 8, 15, 3. Sī voluisset, dīmicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought; N. 23, 8, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE TIME

542. The time of an action is said to be Absolute when it has no reference to the time of any other action, but it is said to be Relative when it indicates the Temporal Relation that the action sustains to some other action. Thus, in independent clauses, the Present, Perfect, and Future express absolute time, but in dependent clauses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes other tenses, express relative time:

Hasdrubal tum, cum haec gerebantur, apud Syphacem erat, Hasdrubal, at the time when these things were taking place, was with Syphax; L. 29, 31.

Here gerēbantur denotes relative time, action going on at the time of erat, — Contemporaneous Action.

Copias quas pro oppido collocaverat, in oppidum recepit, he received into the town the forces which he had stationed before it; Caes. 7, 71.

Here collocaverat denotes relative time, action completed at the time of recepit, — Prior Action.

Cupio scire ubi sis hiematūrus, I desire to know where you will spend the winter; C. Fam. 7, 9.

Here sīs hiemātūrus denotes relative time, action about to take place, but still future at the time of cupiō, —Subsequent Action.

543. In Dependent clauses, the tenses of the Subjunctive generally denote relative time, and they may represent the action of the verb as going on at the time of the principal verb, Contemporaneous action; as completed at that time, Prior action; or, as about to take place, Subsequent action. Moreover, they conform to the following rule for

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Rule. — Principal tenses depend on Principal tenses, and Historical on Historical:

Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is; C. Tusc. 1, 22, 58. Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what the faults were; C. Rosc. A. 14, 41. Rogāvit essentne fūsī hostēs, he asked whether the enemy had been routed; C. Fin. 2, 30, 97.

544. TABLE OF SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES

INDEPENDENT	DEPENDENT CLAUSE			
CLAUSE	Contemporaneous Action	Prior Action	Subsequent Action	
PRINCIPAL TENSES Quaerō Quaeram Quaesierō I ask I shall ask I shall have asked	quid faciās what you are doing	quid fēcerīs what you have done	quid faciās quid factūrus sīs what you will do	
HISTORICAL TENSES Quaerēbam Quaesīvī Quaesieram I was asking I asked I had asked	quid facerës what you were doing	quid fëcissës what you had done	quid facerës quid factürus essës what you would do	

545. In this table, observe:

- I. That the Subjunctive dependent on a Principal Tense is put:
- 1. In the Present, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
- 2. In the Perfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action, and
- 3. In the Present, either of the simple, or the periphrastic, form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action:

Quaeritur cūr dissentiant, the question is asked why they disagree. Nēmē erit qui cēnseat, there will be no one who will think. Nēn dubitārī dēbet, quīn fuerint ante Homērum poētae, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer; C. Brut. 13. Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Incertum est, quam longa vita futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue; C. Ver. 1, 58.

- II. That the Subjunctive dependent on an Historical Tense is put
 - 1. In the Imperfect, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
 - 2. In the Pluperfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action; and
- 3. In the Imperfect, either of the simple, or of the periphrastic form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action:

Quaesivit, salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe; C. Fin. 2, 30, 97. Cum tridui viam processisset, nuntiatum est el, when he had advanced a three days' journey, it was announced to him. Timebam ne evenirent ea, I feared that those things would happen. Incertum erat quo missuri classem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet; L. 30, 2.

PECULIARITIES IN THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

546. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Indicative, the Historical Present, the Present used of authors, and the Historical Infinitive are generally Historical tenses, though sometimes used as Principal tenses:

Quoniam quae subsidia haberes exposui, i since I have shown what aids you have; Q. C. Pet. Cons. 4, 18. Oblitus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said; C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet, he persuaded Casticus to seize the government; Caes. 1, 3. Ubii orant ut sibl parcat, the Ubii implored him to spare them; Caes. 6, 9.

- 547. The Imperfect Subjunctive, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an Historical tense:
 - . Sī probārem, quae ille diceret, if I approved what he says; C. Fin. 1, 8, 27.
- 1. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Subjunctive is generally a Principal tense, but in relation to another Subjunctive depending upon it it is generally Historical:

Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, quārē is patrī displicēret, let us inquire what were the faults by which he displeased his father; C. Rosc. A. 14, 41.

Observe that exposul and persuadet are treated as historical tenses, while oblitus es and orant are treated as principal tenses.

Note. — Here fuerint is a principal tense in relation to quaeramus, but in relation to displiceret it is historical.

548. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an Historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time:

Satis docuisse videor, hominis nātūra quantō anteīret animantēs, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses (that of) the other animals; C. N. D. 2, 61, 153. Spērō fore 1 ut contingat, I hope it will happen; C. Tusc. 1, 34. Nōn spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him; L. 28, 44. Misērunt Delphōs cōnsultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do; N. 2, 2.

549. Clauses containing a General Truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiae vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience; C. C. 3, 5, 11.

550. In clauses denoting Result, or Consequence, the Subjunctive tenses have the ordinary temporal force of the corresponding tenses of the Indicative:

Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians; N. 25, 2. Adeō excellēbat Aristīdēs abstinentiā, ut Iūstus sit appellātus, Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just; N. 8, 1.

1. Observe the temporal force of these Subjunctives: esset, was, result continuing in past time, the usual force of the Imperfect; sit appellātus, has been called, the usual force of the Present Perfect.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

551. The Latin Subjunctive performs the duties of two moods originally distinct, the Subjunctive and the Optative. It comprises three varieties ²:

¹ Literally, I kope it will be that it may happen. Here fore shares the tense of spērō, and is accordingly followed by the Present, contingat; but below it shares the tense of spērāverat, and is followed by the Imperfect, dēficerent.

² The three varieties of the Latin Subjunctive were all inherited from the mother tongue—the Potential and the Optative from the original Optative, and the Volitive from the original Subjunctive.

- I. Subjunctive of Possibility, or Potential Subjunctive, which represents the action as Possible; see 552.
- II. Subjunctive of Desire, or Optative Subjunctive, which represents the action as Desired; see 558.
- III. Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive, which represents the action as Willed; see 559.

Potential Subjunctive

552. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is non:

Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire; C. Rosc. A. 2. Forsitan aliquis quippiam fēcerit, perhaps some one may have done something; C. Ver. 2, 82, 73. Ita laudem inveniās, thus you (any one) may or will win praise; T. And. 65. Ubī sōcordiae tē trādiderīs, nēquīquam deōs implōrēs, when you have given yourself up to sloth, you will implore the gods in vain; S. C. 52, 29. Eum facile vītāre possīs, you may easily avoid him; C. Ver. 1, 15, 39. Hōc sine ūllā dubitātiōne cōnfīrmāverim, this I should assert without any hesitation; C. Brut. 6, 25.

- 553. In these examples observe that the Potential Subjunctive in its widest application includes two varieties:
 - 1. The Potential Subjunctive in a strict sense is comparatively rare.
- 2. The Conditional Subjunctive represents the action as dependent on a condition, expressed or implied, but the condition is often so very vague and so fully implied in the mood itself, as in the last two examples, that there is no need of supplying it, even in thought, but when it is expressed, the two clauses form a regular conditional sentence; see 572, 573.

554. On the use of Tenses, observe:

- 1. That the Present may be used of Incomplete actions either in **Present** or Future time: quispiam dicat, some one may say, now or at any time; see also 541, 2.
- 2. That the Perfect may be used of Completed actions either in Present time, as in the second example, or in Future time, as in the last example. When used of Future time, it may be compared with the special use of the Future Perfect described in 540, 1. Like that it fixes the attention on the Completion or the Result of the action, and like that it is used especially in earnest and impassioned discourse.
- 3. That the Imperfect is sometimes used in its original meaning as a Past tense: tum diceres, you would then have said, and sometimes in its later

transferred meaning to represent the statement as contrary to fact: **dicerēs**, you would say. The latter is its regular meaning in conditional sentences; see 579.

555. In simple sentences, the Potential Subjunctive is most common in the third person singular with an indefinite subject, as aliquis, quispiam, as in the second example under the rule, and in the second person singular of the Imperfect, used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one:

Dicerës, you, any one, would say, or would have said
Scirës, you, any one would know, or would have known
Crëderës, putärës, you would have believed, would have thought
Cernerës, vidërës, you would have perceived, would have seen

Canës vënäticos dicerës, hunting dogs you would have called them; C. Ver. 4, 18, 81. Maesti, crëderës victos, redeunt in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to camp; L. 2, 48.

556. In the language of Politeness and Modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in the first person of the Present and Imperfect of verbs of Wishing, as velim, I should wish; nölim, I should be unwilling; mālim, I should prefer; vellem, I should wish, or should have wished; nöllem, I should be unwilling, or should have been unwilling; māllem, I should prefer, or should have preferred:

Sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre, if you have any tidings, I should like to know it; C. Att. 4, 10. Ego tē salvom vellem, I should wish you safe; Pl. Pseud. 309. Nöllem factum, I should not have wished it done; T. Ad. 165.

- 1. For the Subjunctive, with or without ut, dependent upon velim, or vellem, see 558, 4; 565.
- 557. Potential Questions. The Potential Subjunctive is used in questions to ask, not what is, but what is likely to be, what may be, would be, or should be:

Quis dubitet, who would doubt, or who doubts? Cur ego non laeter, why should I not rejoice? Cur Cornelium non defenderem, why should I not have defended Cornelius? C. Vat. 2, 5.

Optative Subjunctive

558. Rule. — The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is nē:

Sint incolumes, sint florentes, sint beati, may they be safe, may they be prosperous, may they be happy; C. Mil. 84, 93. Stet have urbs pracelara, may this illustrious city stand secure. Id sit quod spero, may that which I hope take place. Illud utinam ne scriberem, would that I were not writing this; C. Fam. 5, 17, 3. Utinam omnes servare potuisset, would that he had been able to save all; C. Ph. 5, 14, 89.

1. Force of Tenses. — The Present implies that the wish may be fulfilled, as in the first three examples; the Imperfect and Pluperfect that it cannot be fulfilled, as in the last two examples.

Note. — In rare instances in early and familiar Latin the Perfect is used to emphasize the Completion of the action, as in 554, 2:

Utinam haec muta facta sit, may she be (have been made) dumb; T. And. 488.

- 2. Utinam is regularly used, with rare exceptions in poetry, with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes with the Present.
- 3. The first person of the Optative Subjunctive is often found in earnest and solemn affirmations:

Në sim salvus, si aliter scribo ac sentio, may I not be safe, if I write otherwise than as I think; C. Att. 16, 13. Sollicitat, ita vivam, mē, as I live, it troubles me¹; C. Fam. 16, 20.

4. Wishes may also be introduced by velim and vellem:

Velim vērum sit, I wish it may be true; C. Att. 15, 4. Velim mihī īgnōscās, I wish you would pardon me; C. Fam. 13, 75. Vellem vērum fuisset, I wish it had been true?; C. Att. 15, 4.

5. In early Latin, wishes are sometimes introduced by ut and in poetry sometimes, though rarely, by sī, or ō sī:

Ut illum dī perdant, would that the gods would destroy him; T. Enn. 803. Sī nunc sē aureus rāmus ostendat, would that (if) the golden branch would show itself; V. 6, 187. \overline{O} mihī praeteritos referat sī Iuppiter annos, O if Jupiter would restore to me my past years; V. 8, 560.

Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive

559. Rule. — The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real but as Willed. The negative is

 $^{^1}$ Here ita vivam means, $may\ I$ so live, i.e. may I live only in case this statement, sollicitat, it troubles me, is true.

² Here velim and sit were originally independent Subjunctives, meaning I should wish, may it be true, the first Subjunctive being potential and the second optative, but subsequently the two verbs became so closely united in thought that it became practically the object of velim, I should wish (what?) that it may be true. Vellem fuisset has had the same history.

- nē. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties:
- 1. The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense:

Amēmus patriam, consulāmus bonīs, let us love our country, let us consult for the good; C. Sest. 68, 143. Nē difficilia optēmus, let us not desire difficult things.

2. The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person and generally best rendered by *let*; but see **560**:

Dēsinant īnsidiārī domī suae cōnsulī, let them cease to lie in wait for the consul in his own house; C. C. 1, 18.

3. The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions:

Sit ista rēs māgna, admit that that is (let that be) an important matter. Nē sit summum malum dolor, grant that pain may not be the greatest evil; C. Tusc. 2, 5, 14. Age, sit ita factum, well, admit that it took place thus; C. Mil. 19, 49.

4. The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued and that he desires to be directed:

Quid agam, iūdicēs, what am I to do, judges? Quid agerem, iūdicēs, what was I to do, judges? C. Sest. 19, 48. Quō mē vertam, whither am I to turn? Eloquar an sileam, am I to speak, or be silent? Rogem tē ut veniās? nōu rogem, am I to ask you to come? am I not to ask you? C. Fam. 14, 4, 3.

Note. — The negative nē, which always implies a negative wish, is not used in deliberative questions, as they ask affirmatively what the wish of the hearer is. The negative non sometimes occurs, but it always limits some particular word and never implies a negative wish: rogem tē, is it your wish that I should ask you? non rogem tē, is it your wish that I should not ask you?

5. Repudiating Questions. — The Subjunctive with or without ut is also used in questions which express Surprise or Impatience, especially common in Early Latin:

Auscultā, quaesō, listen, I pray. Ego auscultem tibī, am I to listen to you? Pl. Mil. 496. Tē ut ūlla rēs frangat, how is anything to subdue you? C. C. 1, 9.

Note. — Deliberative and Repudiating questions may be readily distinguished from the Potential questions considered under 557. The latter never represent the speaker as in any doubt or perplexity. They are mostly rhetorical questions, used for rhetorical effect in place of assertions, as quis dubitet, who would doubt? equivalent to nēmō dubitet, or nēmō dubitat.

6. The Subjunctive is occasionally used to state what should have been or ought to have been:

Potius diceret, he should have said rather. Restitisses, mortem pugnans oppetisses, you should have resisted, should have met death in battle; C. Sest. 20, 54, 45.

7. Note the following use of the Subjunctive with nedum, do not think, not to say, much less:

Satrapa numquam sufferre sümptüs queat, nēdum tū possīs, a satrap would not be able to bear the expense, much less would you be able (do not think that you would); T. Heaut. 452. Nec potuērunt, nēdum possīmus, and they were not able, much less should we be able; C. Clu. 35, 95.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

560. Rule. — In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third:

Līberā rem pūblicam metū, free the republic from fear; C. C. 1, 8. Pergite, ut facitis, go on, as you are now doing. Suum quisque nōscat ingenium, let every one know his own character. Sēcernent sē ā bonīs, let them separate themselves from the good; C. C. 1, 13.

1. The second person of the Present Subjunctive may be used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one, and in early Latin and in the poets, even of a definite person:

Istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit, use that blessing of yours, while it is with you; C. Sen. 10, 33. Apud nōs hodiē cēnēs, dine with us to-day; Pl. Most. 1129.

2. The Future Imperative may be used in the sense of the Present, if the latter is wanting, as scītō, scītōte, mementō, mementōte, etc.:

Mementôte hôs esse pertimescendos, remember that these are to be feared.

3. An Imperative may supply the place of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, iam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic.

Note. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Negative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause: first, without any connective whatever, as in cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit, as nē belongs to the negative clause itself; and, second, with the connective ut, as in praedīcit ut nē lēgātōs dīmittant. The former is the usual method.

- 563. A clause containing an Optative or Volitive Subjunctive, when dependent, may become,
- 1. A Substantive Clause, generally used as the Object of the Principal verb:

Velim ut beātus sis, I should wish that you may be happy.

2. An adverbial Clause, used to denote the Purpose or Intention of the action, often called a Final Clause:

Oportet ësse ut vivās, it is proper to eat in order that you may live.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

- 564. Rule.—The Subjunctive, generally with ut or nē, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose:
 - I. In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs:

Scrībās ad mē velim, I wish that you would write to me; C. Att. 5, 2, 8. Orant ut sibī parcat, they ask that he would pardon them. Suīs imperāvit nē quod tēlum rēicerent, he enjoined upon his men that they should not hurl back any weapon; Caes. 1, 46, 2.

II. In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates:

In epistulā scrīptum erat, ut omnia parāret, 1 that he was to make all preparations had been written in the letter; C. Att. 18, 45, 1. Est lēx amīcitiae, ut idem amīcī velint, it is a law of friendship, that friends should have the same wish; C. Planc. 2, 5. Altera est rēs ut rēs gerās māgnās, the other thing is that you should perform great deeds; C. Off. 1, 20, 66.

1. Subject Clauses sometimes take the Subjunctive without ut, regularly with licet and oportet, and generally with necesse est:

Sīs licet fēlīx, 2 you may be happy (it is allowed); H. 8, 27, 18. Tē oportet virtūs trahat, virtue ought to attract you; C. R. P. 6, 28. Causam habeat, necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause; C. Div. 2, 28.

¹ The Subjunctive Clause, ut pararet, is the subject of scriptum erat.

² Sis felix, originally independent of licet, may you be happy. So, too, virtus trahat, independent of oportet, let virtue attract.

Në sepelito nëve urito, do not bury nor burn. Habe tuum negotium nec existima, manage your own business and do not consider ; C. Att. 12, 22, 3. Në cape nec të civilibus insere bellis, do not take arms and do not involve yourself in civil wars; C. M. 3, 116.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

562. 1. The meaning of the Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses is either precisely the same as in Principal Clauses, or is a natural development from that meaning. The following examples show the process by which an Affirmative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — Vērum sit,² may it be true. Velim; vērum sit,² I should wish it; may it be true.

Dependent. — Velim vērum sit, I should wish (what?) that it may be true; C. Att. 15, 4, 4.

Independent. — Velim; beātus sīs, I should wish it; may you be happy. Dependent. — Velim ut beātus sīs, I should wish (what?) that you may be happy; C. Att. 10, 16, 1.

Note. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Affirmative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause; first, without any connective whatever, as in velim vērum sit; and, second, with the connective ut, as in velim ut beātus sīs. With most verbs the second is the usual method.

2. The following examples show the process by which a Negative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — Cūrā; nē quid Tulliae dēsit, see to it; let nothing be wanting to Tullia.

Dependent. — Cūrā ne quid Tulliae desit, see that nothing may be wanting to Tullia; C. Att. 11, 3, 3.

Independent. — Praedīcit; nē lēgātōs dimittant, he gives the order: "let them not release the envoys."

Dependent. — Praedicit ut ne legatos dimittant, he gives the order that they shall not release the envoys; cf. N. 2, 7, 3.

¹ Observe that this use of neque, nec, and not, after an affirmative clause corresponds exactly to our use of 'and not' in the same situation: "and do not consider."

² Vērum sit, may it be true, is an Independent Subjunctive of Desire in these two examples, but in velim vērum sit it has become dependent upon velim, of which it is now the object, though it still continues to be a Subjunctive of Desire.

Note. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Negative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause: first, without any connective whatever, as in cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit, as nē belongs to the negative clause itself; and, second, with the connective ut, as in praedicit ut nē lēgātōs dīmittant. The former is the usual method.

- 563. A clause containing an Optative or Volitive Subjunctive, when dependent, may become,
- 1. A Substantive Clause, generally used as the Object of the Principal verb:

Velim ut beātus sis, I should wish that you may be happy.

2. An adverbial Clause, used to denote the Purpose or Intention of the action, often called a Final Clause:

Oportet esse ut vivas, it is proper to eat in order that you may live.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

- 564. Rule.—The Subjunctive, generally with ut or nē, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose:
 - I. In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs:

Scrībās ad mē velim, I wish that you would write to me; C. Att. 5, 2, 3. Orant ut sibī parcat, they ask that he would pardon them. Suīs imperāvit nē quod tēlum rēicerent, he enjoined upon his men that they should not hurl back any weapon; Caes. 1, 46, 2.

II. In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates:

In epistulā scrīptum erat, ut omnia parāret, 1 that he was to make all preparations had been written in the letter; C. Att. 18, 45, 1. Est lēx amīcitiae, ut idem amīcī velint, it is a law of friendship, that friends should have the same wish; C. Planc. 2, 5. Altera est rēs ut rēs gerās māgnās, the other thing is that you should perform great deeds; C. Off. 1, 20, 66.

1. Subject Clauses sometimes take the Subjunctive without ut, regularly with licet and oportet, and generally with necesse est:

Sīs licet fēlix, 2 you may be happy (it is allowed); H. 8, 27, 18. Tē oportet virtūs trahat, virtue ought to attract you; C. R. P. 6, 23. Causam habeat, necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause; C. Div. 2, 28.

¹ The Subjunctive Clause, ut pararet, is the subject of scriptum erat.

² Sis fēlix, originally independent of licet, may you be happy. So, too, wirtus trahat, independent of oportet, let virtue attract.

III. In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns:

Fēcit pācem hīs condicionibus, nē quī adficerentur exsilio, he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile; N. 8, 8. Id agunt, ut virī bonī esse videantur, they strive for this, that they may appear to be good men; C. Off. 1, 18.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES USED AS THE OBJECTS OF VERBS

565. Verbs meaning to Desire, Wish, Ask, Command, Persuade, Determine, Decree, and the like, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Velim ut tibl amīcus sit, I wish him to be (that he may be) a friend to you; C. Att. 10, 16. Tē hortor ut ōrātiōnēs meās legās, I exhort you to read my orations; C. Off. 1, 1, 3. Ōrō ut hominēs cōnservēs incolumēs, I ask that you would keep the men unharmed. Dēcrēvit senātus, ut Opīmius vidēret, the senate decreed that Opimius should see to it. Huic persuādet utī ad hostēs trānseat, he persuaded him to go over to the enemy. Praedīxit ut nē lēgātōs dīmitterent, he charged them not to release the delegates; N. 2, 7, 8. Hōc tē rogō, nē dēmittās animum, nēve tē obruī sinās, I ask you not to be discouraged, and not to permit yourself to be overcome; C. Qu. Fr. 1, 1, 4.

- 1. For the negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, see 561, 4.
- 2. The regular constructions with volo, mālo, and nolo are the Infinitive, with or without a Subject-Accusative, and the Subjunctive without ut, though volo and mālo sometimes take ut:

Vērum audīre non vult, he does not wish to hear the truth. Mihī crēdās velim, I wish you to believe me. Id ut faciās velim, I wish you to do this.

3. Iubeō and vetō regularly take the Accusative and the Infinitive in the Active, with the Personal Constructions in the Passive; see 611, 1:

Helvētiōs oppida restituere iussit, he ordered the Helvetii to rebuild their towns. Ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat, he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave (depart from) the work. Iubentur scribere exercitum, they are ordered to enroll an army.

4. Verbs meaning to direct, urge, etc., and the Imperatives fac and facito often take the Subjunctive without ut, and cave sometimes takes the Subjunctive without no:

¹ The clause nē...exsiliō, originally a Volitive Subjunctive, is an Appositive to condicionibus and ut... videantur, an Appositive to id.

Labieno mandat Belgās adeat, he directs Labienus to visit the Belgae; cf. Caes. 3, 11, 2. Fac plānē sciam, let me know fully (make that I may know); C. Fam. 7, 16. Cavē existimēs, beware of supposing; C. Fam. 9, 24.

5. Verbs meaning to determine, decide, etc., — statuō, cōnstituō, dēcernō, etc., — generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (614):

Senātus dēcrēvit, darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consuls should attend to it; S.C. 29, 2. Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, he had decided to cross the Rhine; Caes. 4, 17.

6. Several other verbs of this class admit either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive, but generally with some difference of meaning:

Persuādēbō tibi ut maneās, I shall persuade you to remain. Persuādēbō tibi hōc vērum esse, I shall convince you that this is true. Moneō ut maneās, I advise you to remain. Moneō tē hōc vērum esse, I remind you that this is true.

566. Verbs meaning to Make, Obtain, Hinder, and the like, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Fac ut të ipsum cūstōdiās, make sure that you protect yourself; C. Fam. 9, 14, 8. Effēcit ut imperātor mitterētur, he caused a commander to be sent. Nē mihī noceant, vestrum est providēre, it is your duty to see to it that they may not injure me; C. C. 3, 12. Dii prohibeant ut hoc praesidium existimētur, the gods forbid that this should be regarded as a defense; C. Rosc. A. 52, 151.

1. Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with facio and ago, rarely with est, a circumlocution:

Invitus facio ut recorder, *I unwillingly recall* (I do unwillingly that I recall); C. Vat. 9, 21. Invitus fēcī ut Flāminīnum ē senātū ēicerem, *I reluctantly expelled Flamininus from the senate*; C. Sen. 12, 42.

2. Some verbs of this class which generally take the Subjunctive, admit the Infinitive, with or without a Subject, but with a somewhat different meaning:

Cūrā ut valeās, take care to be in good health; C. Att. 11, 8. Nihil quod tē putem scīre cūrāre, nothing which I think you would care to know; C. Fam. 9, 10.

567. Verbs meaning to Fear generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Timeo ut labores sustineas, I fear that you will not endure the labors; C. Fam. 14, 2. Timeo ne eveniant ea, I fear that those things may happen; ct. C. Fam. 6, 21.

1. The following examples show the process by which a Subjunctive clause becomes dependent upon a verb of Fearing. They also show why ut must be rendered that not, and no that or lest:

Timeō; nē ēveniant ea, I fear; may those things not happen.

Timeo ne eveniant ea, I fear that, or lest, those things may happen = I fear, may they not happen; negative desire, hence ne.

Timeō; veniant ea, I fear; may those things happen.

Time δ ut veniant ea, I fear that those things may not happen = I fear, may those things happen; affirmative desire, hence ut.

2. After verbs of Fearing, ne non is sometimes used in the sense of ut, regularly so after a negative clause:

Non vereor ne hoc indici non probem, I do not fear that I may not make this acceptable to the judge; C. Ver. 4, 38, 82.

3. Verbs of Fearing admit the Infinitive as in English:

Vereor laudare praesentem, I fear (hesitate) to praise you in your presence.

4. Various expressions, nearly or quite equivalent to verbs of Fearing, are also followed by the Subjunctive; as, timor est; metus, cūra, perīculum est; perīculōsum est; anxius, pavidus sum; in metū, in perīculō sum; cūra, timor incēdit; pavor capit, etc.:

Num est persculum në quis putet turpe esse, is there any fear that any one may think it to be disgraceful? Orat. 42, 145. Pavor ceperat milites në mortiferum esset vulnus, fear that the wound might be mortal had seized the soldiers. Në quod bellum orirëtur, anxius erat, he was fearful that some war might arise. Sunt in metū, në afficiantur poenā, they are in fear that they may be visited with punishment; C. Fin. 2, 16, 53.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE—FINAL CLAUSES

568. Rule. — The Subjunctive is used with ut, nē, quō, quō minus, quōminus, to denote the Purpose of the action:

Rōmānī ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset, the Romans took Cincinnatus from the plow that he might be dictator; C. Fin. 2, 4, 12. Lēgibus idcircō servīmus ut līberī esse possīmus, we are servants of the laws for this reason, that we may be able to be free; C. Clu. 58, 146. Claudī cūriam iubet, nē quis ēgredī possit, he orders the senate house to be closed that no one may be able to come out. Medicō aliquid dandum est, quō sit studiōsior, something ought to be given to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Neque tē dēterreō quō minus

id disputēs, and I am not trying to deter you from discussing (that you may less discuss) that point; C. Att. 11, 8, 1.

1. The following examples show the process by which the Volitive Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Independent Volitive. — Në quid rës publica dëtrimenti capiat, 1 let the republic suffer no harm.

Dependent Volitive = Purpose. — Dent operam consules ne quid res publica detrimenti capiat, let the consuls give heed that (in order that) the republic may suffer no harm.

Independent. — Vincat, let him conquer. Contendit; vincat, he is striving; let him conquer.

Dependent. — Contendit ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.

- 2. Object Clauses and Final Clauses. Object clauses and Final clauses, as they are both developed from the Volitive Subjunctive, are sometimes difficult to distinguish. An Object clause, however, is always the grammatical object of a verb, while a Final clause is never thus used.
- 3. Conjunctions introducing Final clauses sometimes have correlatives in the Principal clause, as ideō, idcircō, eō, etc., as in the second example.
- 4. Subjunctive clauses with **ut** or **ne** are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amīcos parāre, optimam vītae, ut ita dīcam, supellectilem, to secure friends, the best treasure, so to speak, of life; C. Am. 15.

5. A clause of purpose may take ut non when the negative belongs, not to the entire clause, but to some particular word:

Suās copiās produxit, ut, sī vellet Ariovistus, etc., eī potestās non deesset (non deesset = adesset), he led out his forces that, if Ariovistus wished, etc., he might not lack the opportunity; Caes. 1, 48, 8. Ut plūra non dīcam, not to say more, or to say no more; C. Man. 15, 44.

6. The negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, whether Substantive or Final, is regularly neve, or neu, but sometimes neque:

Legem tulit, ne quis accusaretur, neve multaretur, he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished; N. 8, 3. Nunc ut ea praetermittam, neque eos appellem, quid lucri fiat cognoscite, now, to omit those things, and not to call upon those persons, learn what the profit is; C. Ver. 8, 48, 115.

¹ Observe that the negative clause no quid . . . capiat becomes negative Purpose without any change whatever, and that the affirmative vincat becomes affirmative Purpose without change, though ut is used to connect it with contendit.

- 7. Quō, by which, that, sometimes introduces Final Clauses, chiefly with comparatives, as in the fourth example. Quō minus is simply quō with the comparative minus.
- 8. Quō minus, by which the less, that thus the less, that not, is generally used with verbs of Hindering, Opposing, Refusing, dēterreō, impediō, obstō, prohibeō, recūsō, etc., and it always takes the Subjunctive. It originally denoted Purpose, but it often introduces Substantive Clauses:

Non recusavit quo minus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit (that he might not submit) to punishment; N. 15, 8. Non deterret sapientem mors, quo minus rei publicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic; C. Tusc. 1, 88, 91. Per eum stetit, quo minus dimicaretur, it was due to his influence (stood through him) that the battle was not fought; Caes. C. 1, 41, 8.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

569. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real:

Nemo est qui non liberos suos beatos esse cupiat, there is no one who would not wish his children to be happy; C. Inv. 1, 30, 48. Quoniam civitati consulere non possent, since they would not be able to consult for the state. Ubi periclum facias, whenever you (any one) may make the trial; Pl. Bac. 68.

1. A clause containing a Potential Subjunctive, when made dependent, often becomes an Adverbial clause denoting the Result of the action:

Ita vixit ut offenderet nëminem, he so lived that he would offend no one, or that he offended no one; C. Planc. 16, 41.

2. The following example shows the process by which the Potential Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Result:

Independent Potential. — Probitatem in hoste etiam diligamus, we should love goodness even in an enemy.

Dependent Potential = Result. — Tanta vis probitātis est ut eam in hoste etiam dīligāmus, so great is the power of goodness that we should love it even in an enemy, or that we love it even in an enemy.

Note. — The strict meaning of the Potential Subjunctive diligiamus is precisely the same both in the Independent and in the Dependent form, vis.

we should love; but from this primary meaning was developed by way of inference a secondary meaning, we love, as we very naturally assume that what one would love as a matter of course, one may love as a matter of fact.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT— CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES

570. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used with ut, or ut non, to denote the Result of the action:

Tāle est ut possit iūre laudārī, it is such that it may be justly praised; C. Fin. 2, 14. Tanta tempestās coorta est, ut nūlla nāvis cursum tenēre posset, so great a tempest arose that no vessel would be able, or was able, to hold its course; Caes. 4, 28. Nēmō adeō ferus est, ut nōn mitēscere possit, no one is so fierce that he may not become gentle; H. E. 1, 1, 39. Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, Atticus so lived that he was (would be) very dear to the Athenians; N. 25, 2.

1. The Potential Subjunctive occurs with quam, with or without ut:

Indulgēbat sibī liberālius, quam ut invidiam posset effugere, he indulged himself too freely to be able (more freely that so as to be able) to escape unpopularity; N. 12, 3. Impōnēbat amplius quam ferre possent, he imposed more than they would be able, or were able, to bear; C. Ver. 4, 84, 76.

2. After tantum abest ut, denoting Result, a second ut-clause of Result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised that it is even censured; C. Tusc. 5, 2, 6.

3. Ita...ut non introduces the Subjunctive of Result, but ita...ut no, so that not, on condition that not, introduces the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Singulis consulatur, sed it aut ea res ne obsit rei publicae, let the interests of individuals be consulted, but only on condition that this does not harm the republic; C. Off. 2, 21, 72.

4. No with the Subjunctive, denoting the wish or purpose of the writer, is sometimes found in clauses of Result:

Ex quo efficitur, non ut voluptas no sit voluptas, sed ut voluptas non sit summum bonum, from which it follows, not (I wish you to understand) that pleasure is not pleasure, but that pleasure is not the highest good; C. Fin. 2, 8, 24.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

- 571. Rule. The Potential Subjunctive is often used with ut and ut non in Substantive Clauses 1 as follows:
- 1. In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning it happens, it follows, etc., accidit, accēdit, ēvenit, fit, efficitur, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, etc.:

Potest fierī ut fallar, it may be that I am deceived; C. Fam. 18, 73, 2. Fit ut quisque delectetur, the result is (it comes to pass) that every one is delighted. Accidit ut esset lūna plēna, it happened that the moon was full. Ad senectūtem accēdēbat ut caecus esset, to age was added the fact that he was blind; C. Sen. 6, 16. Evenit ut rūrī essemus, it happened that we were in the country. Spēro fore ut contingat id nobīs, I hope that this will fall to our lot; C. Tusc. 1, 34.

2. In Subject clauses with predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mos est ut nolint, it is their custom to be unwilling; C. Brut. 21, 64. Fuit meum officium ut facerem, it was my duty to do it. Vērum est ut bonos bonī dīligant, it is true that the good love the good. Quid tam incrēdibile quam ut eques Romānus triumphāret, what so incredible as that a Roman knight should triumph? C. Man. 21, 62.

3. In Object clauses depending upon facio, efficio, etc., of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit, ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (that all things may bloom); C. N. D. 2, 15, 41. Splendor vester facit ut peccure sine periculo non possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you cannot err without peril; C. Ver. 1, 8, 22.

4. In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Est hoc vitium ut invidia gloriae comes est, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory; N. 12, 3. Id est proprium civitatis ut sit libera,

¹ The Subjunctive, in some of these substantive clauses, was developed directly from the independent Potential Subjunctive, as in the first example: independent, potest fier1: fallar, it may be; I may be deceived; dependent, potest fier1 fallar, it may be that I am deceived. In some other examples, it was developed through the clause of result, as in the second example. If this is interpreted to mean, it is done in such a way that every one is delighted, then ut...delectstur is a clause of result, but, if it is interpreted as in the text, it becomes a substantive clause. In some instances, however, substantive clauses, apparently with the Potential Subjunctive, have not been developed in either of these two ways, but formed by analogy, after the general type of substantive clauses.

it is characteristic of a state to be free. Soli hoc contingit sapient ut nihil faciat invitus, this happens only to the wise man, that he does nothing unwillingly; C. Parad. 5, 1, 34.

MOODS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.—INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE

572. Every Conditional Sentence consists of two distinct parts expressed or understood, the Condition or Protasis, and the Conclusion or Apodosis:

Si negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.

Here **sī negem** is the condition or protasis and **mentiar**, the conclusion or apodosis.

573. Conditional sentences naturally arrange themselves in three distinct classes with well-defined forms and meanings, as follows:

Class I. — Indicative in both clauses; Condition assumed as Real:

Negat quis, negō, some one denies (= if some one), I deny; T. Eun. 251. SI quis negat, negō, if some one denies, I deny.

Class II. — Subjunctive, Present or Perfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Possible:

Rogës më, nihil fortasse respondeam, ask me, I may perhaps make no reply; C. N. D. 1, 21, 57. Si rogës më, nihil fortasse respondeam, if you should ask me, I should perhaps make no reply.

Class III.—Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Contrary to Fact:

Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted; V. 6, 80. Tū māgnam partem, sī sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, if grief had permitted.

Note. — From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle, as sī, if, although regularly used, is not an essential part of a conditional sentence, and that it originally had no influence upon the mood in either clause, as the mood in each of these examples without sī is the same as in the corresponding example with sī. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent of each other, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in independent sentences; see 523, 551.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — CLASS I

Indicative in Both Clauses

574. Rule. — The Indicative in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Real:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Sī vincimus, omnia nōbīs tūta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe for us. Plūra scrībam, sī plūs ōtiī habuerō, I shall write more if I shall have (had) more leisure. Sī fēcerīs id, māgnam habēbō grātiam; sī nōn fēcerīs, īgnōscam, if you will do this, I shall have great gratitude; if you do not do it (shall not have done it), I shall pardon you; C. Fam. 5, 19. Sī licuit, pecūniam rēctē abstulit fīlius, if it was lawful, the son took the money rightfully. Sīn certē ēveniet, nūlla fortūna est, but if it will surely happen, there is no uncertainty whatever; C. Div. 2, 7, 18. Mīrum, nī domīst (= domī est), strange if he is not at home; T. And. 598.

1. Force of the Indicative in Conditional Clauses.—The Indicative in conditional clauses assumes the supposed case as a fact, but it does not necessarily imply that the supposition is in accord with the Actual Fact, although it is often used when such is the case, especially with all quidem, which often means since:

Antiquissimum est genus poētārum, sī quidem ¹ Homērus fuit ante Romam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since (if indeed) Homer lived before the founding of Rome; cf. Tusc. 1, 1, 3.

- 2. The Time may be Present, Past, or Future, and it is often the same in both clauses, but various combinations of tenses occur; see examples.
- 3. The use of the Future Perfect in both clauses illustrates the fondness of the Latin for the forms for completed action:

Is bellum confecerit qui Antonium oppresserit, he who shall crush Antony, will bring this war to a close; C. Fam. 11, 12.

4. In general the Latin language makes no distinction between Particular and General Conditions; but see 578.

Force of Conditional Particles

575. The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by sī or sīn, with or without other particles, as sī quidem, sī modo, sīn autem; when negative, by nisi, nī, sī nōn:

¹ Si quidem, lit. if indeed, if as it is admitted = since.

SI haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum; sī non, exsul sum, if this is a state, I am a citizen; if not, I am an exile; cf. C. Fam. 7, 3, 5.

1. The force of sī, probably a Locative case, is more clearly seen when it is used as the correlative of sīc and ita, so, thus, as in the following examples:

Sic scribes aliquid, si vacabis, so or if you shall have leisure, so you will write something; C. Att. 12, 38. Ita senectus honesta est, si ius retinet, so or if old age retains its right, so it is honorable; C. Sen. 11, 38.

Note. — Sic is a compound of sī and ce, seen in hī-ce; sīc = sī-ce. Sī . . . sīc means so . . . so. Compare the corresponding use of so in English: "So truth be in the field, we do injuriously to misdoubt her strength" (Milton).

2. **Nisi** and **sī nōn** are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly **nisi**, if not, with the emphasis on if, means unless, and introduces a negative condition, as a qualification or an exception, while **sī nōn**, if not, with the emphasis on not, limits the negative to some particular word:

Parvi foris sunt arma, nisi est consilium domi, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home; cf. C. Off. 1, 22, 76. Si tibi non graves sumus, refer ad illa te, if we are not troublesome to you, return to those topics; C. Or. 3, 36, 147. Here observe that non belongs to graves.

3. Sī non, from the nature of its meaning with its emphatic non, is used chiefly in contrasts:

Si illud non licet, saltem hoc licebit, ij that is not lawful, this surely will be: T. Eun. 689.

4. Sī minus, sīn minus, sīn aliter, are sometimes used in the sense of sī nōn, especially when the verb is omitted:

Sī minus potentem, at probātam tamen et iūstam, if not powerful, at least approved and just; C. Fam. 2, 6, 8. Sīn minus poterit, negābit, but if he shall not be able, he will deny; C. Inv. 2, 29, 88.

5. Sin and sin autem, but if, are generally used in contrasting clauses, whether affirmative or negative:

Si statim nāvigās . . .; sīn tē confirmāre vis, if you sail at once . . .; but if you wish to recover your health; C. Fam. 16, 1.

6. **Nisi** or **ni**, generally if not, unless, is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Nescio, nisi hoc video, I know not, but I observe this; C. Rosc. A. 85, 99.

7. Nisi si means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi sī quis ad mē scrīpsit, unless perhaps some one has written to me; C. Fam. 14, 2.

 The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with nisi forte and nisi vērō:

Nisi forte id dubium est, unless perchance this is doubtful; C. Ver. 1, 89, 100.

9. A condition is sometimes implied in a participle, in an ablative absolute, or even in the oblique case of a noun:

Non potestis, voluptăte omnia derigentes, retinere virtutem, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure; C. Fin. 2, 22, 71. Recte facto, exigua laus proponitur, if the work is well done, small praise is offered; C. Agr. 2, 2, 5. Nemo sine spe se offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (= if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death; C. Tusc. 1, 15, 32.

10. For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 646.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.—CLASS II

Subjunctive, Present or Perfect in Both Clauses

576. Rule. — The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Possible:

Dies deficiat, sī velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause; C. Tusc. 5, 35, 102. Haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre debeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? C. C. 1, 8. Sī quid tē fūgerit, ego perierim, if anything should escape you, I should be ruined; T. Heaut. 316.

- 1. The time denoted by these tenses, the Present and the Perfect, is either Present or Future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its progress, the latter in its completion; but the Perfect is rare, especially in the conclusion.
- 2. In early Latin the Present Subjunctive is often used in conditions contrary to fact:

Magis id dīcās, sī sciās quod ego sciō, you would say this the more, if you knew what I know; Pl. Mil. 1429. Tū sī hīc sīs, aliter sentiās, if you were in my place, you would think differently; T. And. 310.

Present Subjunctive in Conditional Clauses

- 577. Conditional Sentences with the Present Subjunctive in the condition exhibit the three following varieties:
- 1. The first variety has the Present Subjunctive in both clauses. This is the regular form in Plautus, and the prevailing form in classical Latine

Quod facile patiar, sī tuō commodō fierī possit, which I can easily bear, if it can be for your advantage; C. Att. 2, 17, 8.

2. The second variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Present Indicative in the Conclusion. This form, somewhat rare in Plautus, became the prevailing form in the rhetorical works of Cicero, and finally the regular form in Tacitus and other late writers. These changes illustrate the gradual extension in principal clauses of the Indicative in constructions once occupied by the Potential Subjunctive:

SI accūsētur, non habet defensionem, if he should be accused, he has no defense; C. Inv. 1, 18, 18. Intrare, sI possim, castra hostium volo, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I may be able.

3. The third variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Future Indicative in the Conclusion. This combination is readily explained from the close relationship between the Present Subjunctive and the Future Indicative, both in etymology and in meaning, but it was not a favorite form in the classical period:

Nec, sī cupiās, licēbit, nor if you should desire it, will it be allowed; C. Ver. 2, 69, 167.

- 578. General Conditions. Conditional sentences which contain General Truths or Repeated Actions usually take the following forms:
- 1. Any required tense of the Indicative in the condition with the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the conclusion:

Parvi foris sunt arma, nisi est consilium domi, arms are of little value abroad unless there is wisdom at home; C. Off. 1, 22, 76. Si quod erat grande vas inventum, laeti adferebant, if any large vessel had been found, they gladly brought it to him; C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, generally in the second person used of an indefinite *you* = *one*, *any one*, in the condition, with the Present Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceas, the memory is impaired if you do not (if one does not) exercise it; C. Sen. 7, 21. Nulla est excusatio peccati, sī amicī causa peccaveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that (if) you may have committed it for the sake of a friend; C. Am. 11, 37.

Note 1. — In Livy and late writers the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are sometimes used. Solitary examples also occur in Cicero and Caesar:

SI apud principes haud satis prospere esset pugnatum, referebantur, if among the principes the battle had not been sufficiently successful, they were led back; L. S, S, 11.

Note 2. — Observe that all the Indicative forms given in this section for General Conditions are also used in Particular Conditions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. - CLASS III

Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect in Both Clauses

579. Rule. — The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact:

Sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is) if it accomplished nothing; C. Fin. 1, 18, 42. Sī optima tenēre possēmus, haud sānē consilio egērēmus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed require counsel. Sī voluisset, propius Tiberī dīmicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought nearer the Tiber. Numquam abīsset, nisi sibī viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way; C. Tusc. 1, 14, 82.

1. Here the Imperfect generally relates to Present time and the Pluperfect to Past time, as in the examples; but sometimes the Imperfect retains its original signification as a past tense of continued action, especially when it is accompanied by a word denoting past time:

Neque tantum laudis Nestori tribuisset Homērus, nisi tum esset honēs eloquentiae, Homer would not have awarded so great praise to Nestor, if there were then no honor for eloquence; C. Brut. 10, 40.

DEVIATIONS FROM THE REGULAR FORMS OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

- **580.** Certain deviations from the regular form of the conclusion are admissible from the following facts:
- 1. The conclusion is often an independent clause, especially in the first class of conditional sentences, and as such it may take any form

¹ The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive alike seem to have been capable originally of representing a condition either as Possible or as Impossible, but by a shifting of tenses which began before the time of Plautus, the Imperfect gradually assumed the latter function for present time, thus relinquishing, in conditional sentences, its original force as a past tense, though traces of this original meaning are seen even in the classical period. Moreover, the use of the Present Subjunctive in early Latin in conditions contrary to fact is only an illustration of its original use.

admissible in such clauses, as that of a Statement, a Wish, or a Command.

- Certain equivalent expressions may be substituted for the regular Subjunctive.
- 581. The Indicative in the Condition may be accompanied by the Imperative or Subjunctive in the Conclusion, regarded as an Independent Clause:

Sī quid peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have done anything wrong, pardon me; C. Att. 3, 15, 4. Quid timeam, sī beātus futūrus sum; what should I fear, if I am going to be happy? Sī quid habes certius, velim scīre, if you have any tidings, I should like to know it; C. Att. 4, 10.

1. The Subjunctive in the condition may be accompanied by the Indicative in the conclusion to emphasize a fact, especially with a condition introduced by nisi, or nī:

Certamen aderat, ni Fabius rem expedisset, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair; L.3, 1. Nec vēnī, nisi fāta locum dedissent, and I should not have come, if the fates had not assigned the place; V.11, 112.

582. The Indicative of the Periphrastic Conjugations, denoting that the action is About to take place or Ought to take place, has almost the same meaning as the ordinary Subjunctive forms of the same verb. Accordingly periphrastic forms in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative (525, 1):

Quid, sī hostēs veniant, factūrī estis, what will you do, if the enemy should come? L. 3, 52. Sī quaerātur, iūdicandum est, if inquiry should be made, a decision must be given; C. Top. 23, 87. Relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi litterās mīsisset, they would have left (were about to leave, but did not) their lands, if he had not sent a letter. Sī vērum respondēre vellēs, haec erant dīcenda, if you had wished to answer truly, this should have been said.

1. The close relationship in meaning between the periphrastic forms in **ūrus sum** and the ordinary Subjunctive forms is illustrated by the following examples:

Quae Caesar numquam fecisset, ea nunc proferuntur, those things which Caesar would never have done are now reported as his; C. Att. 14, 13, 6. Quae

¹ Observe that the Indicative of this Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, *this should have been said*, has precisely the same force as the Subjunctive in such sentences as the following:

Mortem pügnäns oppetisses, you should have met death in battle; C. Sest. 20, 45.

ille factūrus non fuit, ea flunt, those things which he would not have done (was not about to do) are now done; C. Att. 14, 14, 2.

2. When the Perfect or Imperfect of the Periphrastic Indicative in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the Perfect is generally used irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeō inopiā est coāctus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetītūrus fuerit,¹ he was so pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul; L. 22, 32.

583. The Historical tenses of verbs denoting Ability, as possum, and of those denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, as debeo and the like, are often in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences, on account of their close relationship in meaning to the Subjunctive (525, 1):

Délèri exercitus potuit, si persecüti victòres essent, the army might have been destroyed if the victors had pursued; L. 32, 12. Quem, si ülla in të pietës esset, colere debebās, whom you ought to have honored, if there was any filial affection in you; C. Ph. 2, 38, 99. Quae si dubia essent, tamen omnës bonës rei püblicae subvenire decebat, even if these things were doubtful, still it would behoove all good men to aid the republic; S. 85, 48.

1. But these verbs often take the Subjunctive in accordance with the general rule, especially in Cicero:

Quid facere potuissem, nisi tum consul fuissem, what should I have been able to accomplish, if I had not then been consul? C. R. P. 1, 6, 10.

2. The Perfect Tense in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is regularly in the Indicative when accompanied by paene or prope (538, 6):

Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, nī ūnus vir fuisset, the bridge would have furnished (almost furnished) a passage to the enemy, had there not been one man; L. 2, 10.

3. The historical tenses of the verb esse with predicate adjectives (as aequius, melius, rēctius, satius; iūstum, rēctum, pār, etc.) are generally in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 525, 2;

Sī ita putāsset, optābilius Milōnī fuit dare iugulum Clōdiō, if he had so thought, it would have been preferable for Milo to offer his neck to Clodius; C. Mil. 11, 31.

¹ Here repetiturus fuerit is the Subjunctive of Result; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

4. In a few other cases also, a conclusion of one form of the conditional sentence is sometimes combined with a condition of a different form:

Si tibi umquam sum visus fortis, certe me in illa causa admiratus esses, if I have ever seemed to you to be brave, you would certainly have admired me in that trial; C. Att. 1, 16. Id neque, si fatum fuerat, effugisset, nor would he have escaped this if it had been fated; C. Div. 2, 8, 20.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

584. Rule. — Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by ac sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī, as if, than if, take the Subjunctive:

Tū similiter facis, ac sī mē rogēs, you are doing nearly the same thing, as if you should ask me; C. N. D. 3, 3, 3. In eādem sunt iniūstitiā, ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, they are involved in the same injustice, as if they should appropriate another's possessions to their own use; C. Off. 1, 14, 42. Tam tē dīligit quam sī vīxerit tēcum, he loves you as much as if he had lived with you; C. Fam. 16, 5, 1. Quasi nihil umquam audierim, as if I had never heard anything. Sīc iacent, tamquam sine animō sint, they lie as if they were without mind. Crūdēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered at his cruelty, as if he were present; cf. Caes. 1, 32.

- 1. In all these sentences the principal clause is entirely independent of the conditional clause.
- 2. In the conditional clause the Present or Imperfect is used for Present time, and the Perfect or Pluperfect for Past time.
- 3. The Present and Perfect may be used in conditions contrary to fact—a survival of the ancient usage as seen in Plautus and Terence.
 - 4. Ceu and sīcutī are sometimes used like ac sī, ut sī, etc.:

Ceu cetera nusquam bella forent, as if they were nowhere any other battles; V. 2, 438. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard; S. 60, 4.

5. Clauses of Comparison, which are not conditional, are treated as Independent clauses. They are generally introduced by such correlatives as ita or sic . . . ut, thus or so . . . as; tam . . . quam, so or as . . . as; talis . . . qualis, such . . . as; tantus . . . quantus, so great . . . as:

Ut sementem fēcerīs, ita metēs, as you sow, so shall you reap, C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Nihil est tam populāre quam bonitās, nothing is so popular as goodness. Tam diū requiēscō quam diū ad tē scrībō, I am comforted so long as I am writing to you; C. Att. 9, 4, 1. Tālem amīcum volunt, quālēs ipsī esse nōn possunt, they wish their friend to be such as they themselves can not be.

CONDITIONAL ADVERSATIVE CLAUSES

585. Rule. — Etsī and etiam sī, when they mean although, introduce Adversative clauses and take the Indicative, but when they mean even if they introduce Conditional clauses, and accordingly take the same construction as sī:

Etsī ab hoste ea dīcēbantur, tamen non neglegenda exīstimābant, although this was said by the enemy, still they did not think that it should be disregarded; Caes. 5, 28. Etiam sī multī mēcum contendent, tamen omnēs superābō, although many will enter the contest with me, yet I shall surpass them all; C. Fam. 5, 6, 4.

Stultitia, etsī adepta est quod concupīvit, numquam sē satis consecutam putat, folly, even if it has obtained what it desired, never thinks that it has obtained enough. Etiam sī oppetenda mors esset, domī māllem, even if death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home; C. Fam. 4, 7, 4.

1. An Adversative clause may represent the action as possible rather than actual, and thus may take the Potential Subjunctive:

Etsī nihil habeat in sē glōria, tamen virtūtem sequitur, although glory may have nothing in itself, yet it follows virtue; C. Tusc. 1, 45, 109.

- 2. Clauses with etsī and etiam sī form a connecting link between Conditional clauses on the one hand and Concessive clauses on the other, as they partake of the characteristics of both.
 - 3. For etsi, and yet, introducing an independent clause, see 586, 4.

MOODS IN ADVERSATIVE AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

586. Rule. — I. Clauses introduced by quamquam and tametsī contain admitted facts, and accordingly take the Indicative:

Quamquam excellēbat abstinentiā, tamen exsiliō multātus est, although he was distinguished for integrity, yet he was punished with exile; N. 8, 1. Quamquam festīnās, non est mora longa, although you are in haste, the delay is not long. Tametsī ab duce dēserēbantur, tamen spem salūtis in virtūte ponēbant, although they were deserted by their leader, they still placed their hope of safety in their valor; Caes. 5, 84.

 But clauses with quamquam and tamets admit the Potential Subjunctive when the thought requires that mood (569):

Quamquam alii dicant, although others may say; C. Fin. 8, 21, 70.



2. In poetry and late prose, quamquam often takes the Subjunctive, regularly in Juvenal and generally in Tacitus:

Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age; Tac. A. 3, 55.

II. Clauses introduced by licet, quamvis, ut, or no are Concessive, and accordingly take the Concessive Subjunctive (559, 3).

Licet irrīdeat, plūs apud mē tamen ratiō valēbit, although he may deride, yet reason will avail more with me; C. Parad. 1, 1, 8. Non tū possīs, quamvīs excellās, you would not be able, although you may be eminent. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, although the strength may fail (let strength fail), still the will is to be commended. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil; C. Tusc. 2, 5, 14.

- 1. The Subjunctive after licet and quamvis is the Concessive Subjunctive. It was originally independent of these particles. Thus, licet, irrideat, it is allowed, let him deride; quamvis excellas, be as eminent as you wish (quam-vis = quam, as, and vis, you wish).
- 2. Quamvīs takes the Subjunctive in the best prose; generally also in Nepos and Livy, but in the poets and late writers it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignitāte rēgiā, quamvis carēbat nomine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name; N. 1, 2, 8. Pollio amat nostram, quamvis est rūstica, Mūsam, Pollio loves my muse, although it is rustic; V. E. 3, 84.

- 3. The Subjunctive with ut and ne in concessive clauses is practically an independent Concessive Subjunctive. Thus, ne sit...dolor, let not pain be the greatest evil (grant that it is not), an entirely independent clause; so, too, ut desint vires, let strength fail, or grant that strength fails, also an independent clause which has assumed ut as the affirmative to correspond to ne in the negative clause.
- 4. Quamquam and etsī, meaning yet, but yet, and yet, often introduce independent clauses:

Quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak? Etsī consilium rectum esse scio, and yet I know that the plan is right.

5. Ut... sīc, or ut... ita, though... yet (as... so), involving comparison, rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive:

Ut a proeliis quietem habuerant, ita non cessaverant ab opere, though (as) they had had rest from battles, yet (so) they had not ceased from work.

6. Quamvis, meaning as you wish, as much as you wish, however much, may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:

Quamvis ënumerës multos licet, though you may count up as many as you wish; C. Leg. 3, 10, 24.

MOODS WITH Dum, Modo, Dummodo

587. Rule. — The Jussive Subjunctive is used with dum, modo, modo ut, and dummodo, meaning if only, provided, in conditional clauses of desire:

Dum res maneant, verba fingant, let them manufacture words, if only the facts remain. Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain if only industry continues; C. Sen. 7, 22. Modo ut haec nobis loca tenere liceat, if only it is permitted us to occupy these places. Dum ne tibi videar, non laboro, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care; C. Att. 8, 11, B. 8. Dummodo ne continuum sit, provided this be not continuous.

MOODS WITH Quod, Quia, Quoniam, Quando 1

- 588. Rule. Causal Clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take
- I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Dēlectātus sum tuīs litterīs, quod tē intellēxī iam posse rīdēre, I have been delighted with your letter, because I have learned from it that now you can laugh; C. Fam. 9, 20, 1. Quia nātūra mūtārī non potest, because nature can not be changed. Quoniam supplicātio dēcrēta est, celebrātote illos diēs, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Quandō pauperiem horrēs, since you shudder at poverty; II. S. 2, 5, 9.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority²:

Aristīdēs nonne expulsus est patriā, quod iūstus esset, was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? C. Tusc. 5, 36, 106.

¹ Quod and quia are in origin relative pronouns. Quoniam = quom iam,

² Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason. Thus quod itstus esset does not state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment.

Reprehendis mē, quia dēfendam, you reprove me because (on the ground that) I defend him. Quoniam cīvitātī cōnsulere non possent, since they could not consult for the state.

1. Sometimes by a special construction the Subjunctive of a verb of Saying or Thinking is used, while the verb which introduces the reason on another's authority is put in the Infinitive:

Dies prorogatur, quod tabulas obsignatas diceret (= obsignatae essent), the time is extended on the ground that the documents were signed, as he said; C. Ver. 1, 38, 98. Legatis accusantibus, quod pecunias cepisse arguerent, as the ambassadors accused him on the ground that he had received moneys, as they claimed; C. Fin. 17, 24.

2. Non quod, non quo, non quin, non quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason, in distinction from the true reason:

Non quod suscenserem, sed quod suppudebat, not because I was angry, but because I was ashamed; C. Fam. 9, 1, 2. Non quo haberem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write; C. Att. 7, 15, 1. Non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc., not because it was not right, but because, etc.

Note. — In such clauses the Indicative is sometimes used to call attention to the facts in the case:

Non quod multis debeo, sed quia, etc., not because I am indebted to many (as I really am), but because, etc.; C. Planc. 32, 78.

3. The quod clause was originally a substantive clause used as Appositive, Subject, or Object:

Hōc praestāmus feris quod colloquimur inter nōs, we are superior to the brutes in this that we converse together; C. Or. 1, 8, 32. Praetereō quod hanc sibī domum dēlēgit, I pass over the fact that she chose for herself this home. Hūc accēdēbat quod exercitum lūxuriōsē habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury; S. C. 11, 5.

Note. — Clauses with **quod** sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of discourse:

Quod me Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, as to the fact that you think that I emulate Agamemnon, you are in error; N. 15, 5, 6.

4. From the Substantive clause was developed the Causal clause, as follows:

Propter hanc causam quod mē adiūvērunt, for this reason, that they aided me, or because they aided me; C. Ver. 3, 46, 109. Dolēbam quod socium laboris āmīseram, I was grieving over the fact that I had lost the companion

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of my labor, or because I had lost the companion of my labor. Tibl ago grātiās quod mē molestiā liberāsti, I thank you because you have freed me from annoyance; C. Fam. 18, 62.

Note. — Observe that in the first example the quod clause may be either an Appositive to causam or a Causal clause, that in the second it may be either the Direct object of dolēbam or a Causal clause, i.e. in these examples we see the Causal clause in the actual process of development, while in the third example we have a fully developed Causal clause. In the time of Plautus the Causal meaning of quod was just beginning to make its appearance, while that of quia was already fully developed.

5. Quia had the same development as quod:

Doleo quia doles, I grieve over the fact that you grieve, or because you grieve.

6. Quoniam and quando were originally temporal particles meaning when now, when, and are so used in Plautus, but the causal meaning was early developed in both.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

- 589. Rule. Clauses introduced by the relative qui, or by Relative Adverbs, ubi, unde, quō, etc., take
- I. The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause:

Ego quī tē cōnfīrmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I who encourage you am not able to encourage myself; C. Fam. 14, 4, 5. Cīvitātēs propinquae hīs locīs, ubī bellum gesserat, states near to those places where he had been carrying on war. Athēniēnsēs, unde lēgēs ortae putantur, the Athenians, from whom laws are supposed to have been derived. Cūmīs, quō sē contulerat, at Cumae, to which he had betaken himself.

Note. - So especially with General Relatives:

Quisquis est, is est sapiens, whoever he is, he is wise.

II. The Subjunctive in all other cases:

Missī sunt dēlēctī, quī Thermopylās occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession (that they might take possession) of Thermopylae; N. 2, 3, 1. Domum, ubī habitāret, lēgerat, he had selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it); C. Ph. 2, 25, 62. Quae tam fīrma cīvitās est, quae non odiīs possit ēvertī, what state is so firmly established that it cannot be ruined by dissensions?



590. The Volitive Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses, to denote Purpose, as in ut clauses (568):

Certumst (certum est) hominem conloqui, qui possim videri huic fortis, a me ut abstineat manum, I am determined to address the man face to face, that I may appear to him brave, that he may keep his hands off from me; Pl. Amph. 339. Legatos Romam, qui auxilium peterent, misere, they sent ambassadors to Rome to ask aid (that they might ask aid). Locum petit, unde hostem invadat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy; L. 4, 27, 8.

- 1. In the first example, observe that the Relative clause, qui possim . . . fortis, and the ut clause, are equivalent expressions of Purpose. In the Independent form, they would read: possim videri huic fortis, let me be able to appear to him brave; ā mē abstineat manum, let him keep his hands off from me.
 - 591. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses:
- To characterize Indefinite or General antecedents, especially General Negatives:

Nëmo est orator qui Dëmostheni së similem nolit esse, there is no orator who would be unwilling to be like Demosthenes; C. Opt. G. 2, 6. Quis est qui hoc dicere audeat, who is there who would dare to say this?

Note 1. — Observe that, in these relative clauses, the Subjunctive is purely Potential, and that it has precisely the same force as in the following independent sentence:

Quis hoc dicere audeat, who would dare to say this?

Note 2.—The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents, in poetry, especially in Plautus and Terence, and in late prose. Even in the best writers it is often used when the Fact is to be made prominent:

Sunt quos invat, there are those whom it delights; H. 1, 1, 8. Permulta sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said; C. Rosc. A. 88, 94.

2. To denote the Natural Result of an Action or Quality:

Non is sum qui his delecter, I am not one who would be delighted with these things, or such a one as to be delighted; C. Harus. 9, 18. Non tū is es quem nihil delectet, you are not one whom nothing would please. Neque quisquam fuit, ubī nostrum iūs obtinērēmus, there was no one with whom (where) we could obtain our right: C. Quinct. 9, 84.

3. In Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod soiam, as far as I (may) know; quod meminerim, as far as I can remember; quod iuvet, as far as it may be of service, etc.:

Non ego te, quod sciam, umquam ante hunc diem vidi, as far as I know, I have never seen you before this day; Pl. Men. 500. Ita homo, quod iuvet, cūriosus, a man, painstaking, so far as it may be of service; C. Fam. 3, 1, 1.

4. In clauses with quod, or with a relative particle, cūr, quārē, etc., in certain idiomatic expressions. Thus, after est, there is reason; non est, nihil est, there is no reason; nulla causa est, there is no reason; non habeo, nihil habeo, I have no reason; quid est, what reason is there? etc.:

Est quod gaudeās, there is reason why you should rejoice (there is that as to which you may rejoice); Pl. Trin. 310. Nihil habeō, quod accūsem senectūtem, I have no reason to complain of old age; C. Sen. 5, 18. Tibī causa nūlla est cūr velis, 1 you have no reason why you should wish.

5. After unus, solus, and the like:

Sapientia est una quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels (may dispel) sadness; C. Fin. 1, 13, 43. Soli centum erant qui creari patres possent, there were only one hundred who could be made senators.

6. After Comparatives with quam:

Damna māiōra sunt quam quae (ut ea) aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be estimated); L. 3, 72.

Note. — For the Infinitive after comparatives with quam, see 643, 2.

7. After dignus, indignus, idoneus, and aptus:

Hunc Caesar idōneum iūdicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged him a suitable person to send (whom he might send); Caes. C. 8, 10, 2. Fabulae dīgnae quae legantur, plays worth reading (which may or should be read).

Note. — For the Infinitive with these words, see 608, 4, and note 1.

592. The Subjunctive, originally Potential, is used in Relative clauses to denote Cause or Reason:

O vis vēritātis, quae sē dēfendat, O the power of truth, that it (which) can defend itself; C. Am. 26, 63. O fortūnāte adulēscēns, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum pracconem invēneris, O fortunate youth, in having obtained (who may have obtained) Homer as the herald of your valor; C. Arch. 10, 24. Nec facillimē āgnōscitur, quippe qui blandiātur, he is not very easily detected, as he is likely to flatter. Maritimae rēs, ut quae celerem motum habērent, maritime affairs, as they involve prompt movement (as things which would have, etc.). Non procul aberat, utpote qui sequerētur, he was not far away, as he was pursuing (as one who might be pursuing); S. C. 57, 4.

¹Observe that the mood in cur vells would be precisely the same in an independent sentence. It is Potential, not Deliberative.



- 1. Quippe, ut, and utpote sometimes accompany the relative in Causal clauses, as in the last three examples. They emphasize the causal relation.
- 2. In Plautus and Terence, causal clauses with quī and quippe quī admit either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. The latter mood emphasizes the causal relation and is used especially with ut quī:

Quem rogem, qui hic nëminem alium videam, whom am I to ask, since I can see no other one here? Ut qui më tibi esse conservom velint, since they (as those who) would wish me to be your fellow-servant; Pl. Capt. 243.

3. Causal clauses with quī admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact rather than as a cause:

Habeō senectūti grātiam, quae mihī sermonis aviditātem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation; C. Sen. 14, 46.

4. In Sallust quippe qui regularly takes the Indicative:

Quippe qui regnum animo iam invaserat, since in thought he had already seized the kingdom; S. 20, 6.

- 593. The Subjunctive, originally Jussive, is used
- 1. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Conditional clauses with the Subjunctive (573):

Haec qui (= sī quis) videat, nonne cogātur confiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc.? C. N. D. 2, 4, 12. Qui videret, urbem captam diceret, if any one saw it, he would say that the city was taken; C. Ver. 4, 23, 52.

2. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Concessive clauses with the Subjunctive (586, II.):

Absolvite eum, qui se fateatur pecunias cepisse, acquit him, although he confesses (let him confess) that he has accepted money; C. Ver. 3, 95, 221. Egomet qui leviter Graecas litteras attigissem, tamen complures dies Athenis sum commoratus, although I had pursued Greek studies only superficially, yet I remained in Athens several days; cf. C. Or. 1, 18, 52.

MOODS WITH Quin

594. Rule. — I. Quin in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences:

Quīn conscendimus equos, why do we not mount our horses? L. 1, 57, 7. Quīn taces, why are you not silent? Quīn ūno verbo dīc, nay, say in a single word; T. And. 45.

II. Quin in subordinate clauses takes the Subjunctive: 1

Nec dubitārī dēbet, quīn fuerint ante Homērum poētae, nor ought it to be doubted that there were poets before Homer; C. Brut. 18, 71. Neque recūsāre, quīn armīs contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Nēmō est tam fortis, quīn reī novitāte perturbētur, no one is so brave, as not to be disturbed by the suddenness of the event; Caes. 6, 39, 3.

- 1. In number I., observe that the use of quin in commands is developed from its use in questions. Thus, quin taces, why are you not silent? implies a reproof which readily passes into a Command, as quin tace, nay, be silent.
- 2. In number II., the quin clause in the first example is developed from the interrogative quin = qui-ne, meaning why not? Quin . . . postae, why may there not have been poets before Homer? The mood is Potential. In the next example, quin is used in the sense of quō minus and thus introduces a clause of Purpose; see 568. In the last example, quin is equivalent to qui non and introduces a clause of Characteristic and accordingly takes the Potential Subjunctive.
- 595. Quin is used after Negatives and Interrogatives implying a Negative. Thus:
- 1. After negative expressions implying Doubt, Uncertainty, Distance, Omission, and the like, as non dubito, non dubium est, nihil abest, nihil or non praetermitto, etc.:

Non dubitat quin sit Troia peritura, he does not doubt that Troy will fall; C. Sen. 10, 31. Non erat dubium, quin plurimum possent, there was no doubt that they had very great power; Caes. 1, 3. Nihil abest quin sim miserrimus, nothing is wanting to make me (that I should be) most unhappy. Nullum intermisi diem, quin aliquid ad të litterärum darem, I have allowed no day to pass without sending (but that I sent) a letter to you.

2. After verbs of Hindering, Preventing, Refusing, and the like, to denote Purpose, like quō minus and nē after the same verbs:

Quin loquar haec, numquam me potest deterrere, you can never deter me from saying this; Pl. Amph. 559. Retineri non potuerant quin tela coicerent, they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons; Cass. 1, 47, 2.

3. After facere non possum, fierī non potest, etc., in Object and Subject clauses:

¹ Quin in subordinate clauses seems to represent two separate words: an interrogative quin = qui-ne, why not, from which was developed a negative relative, meaning by which not = quominus; and a relative quin = qui non, quae non, quod non, who not.

Facere non possum, quin cottidie litteras ad te mittam, I cannot but send (cannot help sending) a letter to you daily; cf. C. Att. 12, 27. Effici non potest quin eos oderim, it cannot be brought about that I should not hate them.

4. After nēmō, nūllus, nihil, quis, and the like, in the sense of quī nōn, quae nōn, ut nōn:

Nemo est, quin malit, there is no one who would not prefer; cf. C. Fam. 6, 1, 1. Nemo est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Nulla fuit civitas quin Caesari pareret, there was no state which was not subject to Caesar. Quis est quin cernat, who is there who does not (would not) perceive? C. Acad. 2, 7, 20.

5. After various verbs with numquam and in Interrogative clauses with umquam:

Numquam tam male est Siculis, quin aliquid facete dicant, it is never so bad with the Sicilians that they cannot say something witty; C. Ver. 4, 48, 95. Quis umquam templum illud adspexit quin avaritiae tuae testis esset, who ever looked upon that temple without being a witness of your avarice?

6. A pronoun, is or id, referring to the subject of the principal clause, is sometimes expressed after quin:

Quis venit quin is de avaritia tua commoneretur, who came without being reminded (but that he was reminded) of your avarice? C. Ver. 1, 59, 154.

- 596. Special Verbs. Certain verbs which take quin with more or less frequency also admit other constructions. Thus:
- Non dubito admits either a quin clause or a dependent question:
 Nolite dubitare, quin huic credatis omnia, do not hesitate to intrust everything to him; C. Man. 23, 68. Non dubito quid nobis agendum putes, I do not doubt what you think we ought to do; C. Att. 10, 1, 2.
- 2. A few verbs of Hindering and Opposing, especially deterred and impedio, take the Subjunctive with ne, quin, or quo minus:

Hos multitudinem deterrere ne frumentum conferant, that these deter the multitude from bringing the grain together; Cass. 1, 17, 2. Quin loquar haec, numquam me potes deterrere, you can never deter me from saying this. Non deterret sapientem mors quo minus rei publicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic; C. Tusc. 1, 88, 91.

CLAUSES WITH Cum

597. The particle cum, like the relative from which it is derived, is very extensively used in subordinate constructions, as in Causal, Concessive, and Temporal clauses.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH Cum IN CAUSAL AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

598. Rule. — In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive clauses with cum take the Subjunctive:

Cum vīta sine amīcīs metūs plēna sit, ratio monet amīcitīās comparāre, since life without friends is (would be) full of fear, reason advises us to establish friendships; C. Fin. 1, 20, 66. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Quippe cum eos dīligāmus, since in truth we love them; C. Am. 5, 28. Utpote cum sine febrī laborāssem, since indeed I had been without fever in my illness. Cum praesertim vos alium mīseritis, especially since you have sent another; C. Man. 5, 12.

Phōciōn fuit pauper, cum dīvitissimus esse posset, Phocion was a poor man, although he might have been very rich; ct. N. 19, 1, 2. Sōcratēs, cum facile posset ēdūcī ē cūstōdiā, nōluit, Socrates, though he could easily have escaped from prison, was unwilling to do so; ct. C. Tusc. 1, 29, 71. Cum multa sint in philosophiā ūtilia, although there are many useful things in philosophy.

- 1. Observe that the causal relation is emphasized by the addition of quippe and utpote to cum, precisely as it is by the addition of these particles to quī; see 592, 1. Praesertim added to cum, as in the fifth example, has a similar force.
- 599. Indicative in Causal and Concessive Clauses with Cum. The Indicative in Causal clauses with cum is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence; and it is used in all writers when the statement is viewed as an actual fact, especially after laudō, gaudeō, grātulor, and the like:

Quom optume fécisti, since you have done excellently; Pl. Capt. 428. Quom hoc non possum, since I have not this power. Cum de tuis factis conqueruntur, since they complain of your deeds; C. Ver. 2, 64, 155. Gratulor tibi, cum tantum vales, I congratulate you on the fact that you have so great influence.

 Concessive clauses with cum sometimes take the Indicative to emphasize the fact rather than the concession:

Cum tabulās emunt, tamen dīvitiās suās vincere nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable to exhaust their wealth; S. C. 20, 12.

2. Ut . . . sīc and ut . . . ita, though . . . yet (as . . . so), involving Comparison, rather than Concession, generally take the Indicative:

Ut a proclis quietem habuerant, ita non cessaverant ab opere, though (as) they had had rest from battles, yet (so) they had not ceased from work.

MOODS IN TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH Cum

- 600. Rule. Temporal clauses with cum, meaning when, while, after, take
 - I. The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses:

Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, I am wont to read books when I have leisure; C. Or. 2, 14, 59. Tum cum urbem condidit, at the time when he founded the city. Cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, when Caesar came into Gaul. Cum hominēs cupiditātibus imperābunt, when men shall govern their desires.

1. Cum Inversum. — Here belong clauses with cum inversum, i.e. with cum in the sense of et tum, and then. This is an inverted construction by which the leading thought is put in the Temporal clause which generally takes the Historical Present or Perfect, often with repents, subits, or some similar word, while the Principal clause generally takes the Imperfect or Pluperfect with vix, nondum, iam, etc.:

Vix ille hoc dixerat, cum iste pronuntiat, etc., scarcely had he said this when (and then) that man proclaimed, etc.; C. Ver. 2, 38, 93. Dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum alter filius necatur, ten days had not yet intervened when (and then) the other son was put to death.

II. The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses:

Zēnonem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens; C. N. D. 1, 21, 59. Cum dīmicāret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain; N. 21, 3, 2. Fuistī saepe, cum Athēnīs essēs, in scholīs philosophorum, you were often in the schools of the philosophers, when you were at Athens. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, when this had been announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Cum trīduī viam processisset, nūntiātum est eī, etc., when he had gone a three days' journey, it was announced to him, etc.

1. It will be found on an examination of these and similar examples that temporal clauses introduced by cum with the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive name, or describe, the occasion on which the action of the principal verb is performed. Thus presence in Athens was the essential condition on which alone one could hear Zeno, and in the fourth example the announcement made to Caesar was the actual cause of his hasty departure from the city. These clauses therefore sustain a close relationship to causal clauses with cum, and probably take the Subjunctive after the analogy of those clauses. They are used chiefly in historical narration, in which the causal relation of events is often manifest.

2. The Subjunctive of the second person singular, used of an indefinite you, meaning any one, may be used in any tense:

Difficile est tacere, cum doleas, it is difficult to be quiet when you are suffering; C. Sull. 10, 31. Cum quosdam audires, when you heard certain persons; C. Brut. 35, 134.

- 601. Indicative. The Indicative in the Imperfect and Pluperfect in Temporal clauses with cum is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence, but it is exceedingly rare 1 in the classical period. It is used, however, in temporal clauses, which logically are nearly or quite independent of the principal clause. Thus
- 1. After cum = et tum, as often in cum interim, cum interea, when in the meantime = and or but in the meantime; cum etiam tum, and even then; cum nondum, hauddum, and not yet:

Caedēbātur virgīs, cum intereā nūllus gemitus audiēbātur, he was beaten with rods, but in the meantime no groan was heard; C. Ver. 5, 62, 162. Multum diēī processerat, cum etiam tum ēventus in incerto erat, a large part of the day had passed, and even then the result was uncertain.

2. After such correlative expressions as tum ... cum, then ... when; eō or illō tempore or diā ... cum, on that time or day ... when, and kindred expressions:

Senātus tum, cum flörēbat imperium, dēcrēvit, the senate decreed at that time when its power was at its height; C. Div. 1, 41, 92. Eō tempore pāruit, cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at that time when it was necessary to obey.

Note. — So in the dating of letters:

Cum haec scrībēbam, spērābam, when I wrote this, I hoped; C. Fam. 8, 18.

3. After cum, meaning from the time when, since, during which, in such expressions as the following:

Nondum centum et decem anni sunt cum lata est lex, it is not yet a hundred and ten years since the law was proposed; C. Off. 2, 21, 75. Permulti anni iam erant, cum nulla certamina fuerant, it was already many years during which there had been no contests.

¹ Caesar, Dē Bellō Gallicō, has upwards of two hundred instances of the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive in temporal clauses with cum, and only one Imperfect and one Pluperfect Indicative. Nepos also has upwards of two hundred Subjunctives in these clauses, but only one Imperfect and one Pluperfect Indicative.

² Remember that the tense is here adapted to the time of the reader, while to the writer the time is present.

4. More commonly after cum, meaning as often as, whenever, in clauses denoting Repeated Action or General Truth, though the Subjunctive is often used:

Haec renovābam, cum licēbat, I was wont to renew my acquaintance with these subjects whenever an opportunity offered; C. Acad. P. 1, 3, 11. Cum rosam viderat, tunc incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, he thought that spring was beginning; C. Ver. 5, 10, 27. Erat, cum dē iūre cīvīlī disputārētur, argūmentōrum cōpia, whenever the discussion was about the civil law, there was an abundance of arguments.

Note. — Meminī cum, I remember when, generally takes the Indicative; audiō cum, videō cum, and animadvertō cum generally the Subjunctive:

Meminī, cum miliī dēsipere vidēbāre, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise; C. Fam. 7, 28, 1. Soleō audīre Rōscium, cum dīcat, I am accustomed to hear Roscius say (when he says); C. Or. 1, 28, 129. Ego ex ils saepe audīvī, cum dīcerent, etc., I have often heard them say (from them when they said); C. Or. 2, 87, 155.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH Postquam, Ubi, Ut, ETC.

602. Rule. — Temporal Clauses, introduced by the particles, postquam, posteā quam, after, — prīdiē quam, postrīdiē quam, on the day before, on the day after; ubi, ut, simul, simul atque, when, as, as soon as, — state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present:

Postquam omnēs Belgārum cōpiās ad sē venīre vīdit, castra posuit, after he saw that all the forces of the Belgae were coming against him, he pitched his camp; Caes. 2, 5, 4. Prīdiē quam tū coāctus es cōnfitērī, etc., on the day before you were compelled to admit, etc.; C. Ver. 5, 80, 77. Ubī dē ēius adventū certiōrēs factī sunt, when they were informed of his approach. Id ut audīvit, as soon as he heard this. Simul in āridō cōnstitērunt, as soon as they stood on dry land. Postquam vident, after they saw.

1. The Pluperfect is used to denote the result of a Completed action, and to mark the interval between two events:

Posteā quam bis consul fuerat, after he had been twice consul; C. Div. C. 21, 69. Annis sex postquam voverat, six years after he had made the vow; L. 42, 10.

2. The Pluperfect is also used to denote Repeated or Customary action:

Ut quisque venerat, hace visere solebat, every one, as he came, was wont to visit these objects; C. Ver. 4, 8, 5.

Note 1.—Other tenses of the Indicative are comparatively rare, though the Present and Imperfect are sometimes used to denote Incomplete action:

Postquam aurum habes, now that you have the gold; Pl. Truc. 919. Postquam nox aderat, when night was approaching; 8. 58, 7.

Note 2. — In a few passages, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are found after postquam and posteā quam:

Posteā quam sümptuosa fierī fünera coepissent, Solonis lēge sublāta sunt, after funerals had begun to be expensive, they were abolished by Solon's law; C. Leg. 2, 25, 64.

3. In Livy and the late historians, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are often used in temporal clauses to denote Repeated action and General truth, and sometimes even in earlier writers:

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittebat, when he had said this, he was wont to hurl a spear; L. 1, 32, 13. Ut quisque veniret, as each one arrived; L. 2, 38.

4. In any temporal clause, the Subjunctive may be used in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you, one, any one:

Ubi periclum faciās, when you make the trial; Pl. Bac. 68. Ubi revēnissēs domum, when you (any one) had returned home. Priusquam incipiās, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation; S. C. 1, 6.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH Dum, Donec, AND Quoad

603. Rule. — I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, meaning as long as, take the Indicative:

Hōc fēcī, dum licuit, *I did this as long as it was allowed*; C. Ph. 8, 18, 88. Haec cīvitās, dum erit, laetābitur, *this state will rejoice as long as it shall exist.* Dōnec eris sōspes, as long as you shall be prosperous. Quoad potuit, restitit, he resisted as long as he could; Caes. 4, 12, 6.

- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, meaning until, take:
- 1. The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Dēlīberā hōc, dum ego redeō, consider this until I return; T. Ad. 194. Dōnec perfēcerō hōc, until I shall have accomplished this. Quoad renuntistum est, until it was actually announced; N. 15, 9, 8.

2. The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Different, dum dēfervēscat īra, let them defer it until their anger cools, or shall cool; C. Tusc. 4, 36, 78. Exspectās dum dīcat, you are waiting until he speaks (i.e. that he may speak). Dōnec cōnsiliō patrēs fīrmāret, until he strengthened the senators by his counsel. Ea continēbis quoad tē videam, you will keep them until I see you; C. Att. 18, 21, 4.

604. Special Constructions of dum and donec. — Note the following:

1. Dum, meaning while, as distinguished from as long as, generally takes the Historical Present Indicative (533, 4), but in the poets and in the historians it sometimes takes the Imperfect Subjunctive:

Dum ea geruntur, Caesari nuntiatum est, while those things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar. Dum ea gererentur, bellum concitur, while those things were taking place, war was begun; L. 10, 18.

2. Donec belongs chiefly to poetry and late prose. It is not found in Caesar or Sallust, and only four times in Cicero. In Livy donec, meaning while, is found with the Imperfect Subjunctive of a repeated action, and with the meaning until it is found with the Pluperfect Subjunctive. In Tacitus, when it means until, it generally takes the Subjunctive, whatever the tense:

Nihil trepidābant, donec continent velut ponte agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on a continuous bridge, as it were; L. 21, 28. Rhēnus servat violentiam cursūs, donec Oceano mīsceātur, the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current until it mingles with the ocean; Tac. A. 2, 6, 8.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH Antequam AND Priusquam

605. Rule. — I. In Temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived:

Antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dīcam, before I resume asking your opinions, I shall say a few words in regard to myself; C. C. 4, 10, 20. Nec prius respexī quam vēnimus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Priusquam incipiās, cōnsultō opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation; S. C. 1, 6. Nōn prius ducēs dīmittunt, quam sit concessum, etc., they did not let the leaders go, until it was granted, etc.; Caes. 8, 18, 7.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive: 1

Pervēnit, priusquam Pompēius sentīre posset, he arrived before Pompey could become aware of his approach; Caos. C. 8, 67, 4. Paucīs ante diēbus quam Syrācūsae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken; L. 25, 81, 12. Antequam dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedoniam porrēxī, before they were able (had been able) to hear of my approach, I went straight into Macedonia; C. Planc. 41, 98.

1. When the Principal clause is negative, and contains an historical tense, the Temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the second example under the rule, rarely the Imperfect, Indicative or Subjunctive:

Nec, antequam virës deerant, expügnäti sunt, nor were they captured until their strength failed; L. 23, 30, 4. Non prius egressus est quam rex eum in fidem reciperet, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection; N. 2, 8, 4.

2. The Future Indicative is exceedingly rare, and is found only in Plautus and Cato:

Priusquam istam pūgnam pūgnābō, before I fight that battle; Pl. Pseud. 594.

3. The Pluperfect Subjunctive is very rare; see the third example under II.

INFINITIVE. - SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

- 606. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.
- 607. Rule. Infinitive. Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Cupiō vidēre, quī id audeat dīcere, I desire to see who will dare to say this; C. Phil. 5, 2, 6. Proeliō supersedēre statuit, he decided to avoid (abstain from) a battle; Caes. 2, 8. Dēsinō quaerere, I forbear to inquire. Latīnē loquī didicerat, he had learned to speak Latīn; 8. 101, 6. Quid facere cōgitās, what do you intend to do? Dubitās abīre, do you hesitate to depart? Persium nōn cūrō legere, I do not care to read Persius. Dēbēs hōc rescrībere, you ought to write this in reply.

¹ The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect is sometimes best explained like the Subjunctive after Dum, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after cum; see 600, II.

1. The Infinitive is used especially with transitive verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to intend, prepare; to hesitate, not to care, refuse; to owe, be under obligations, etc.

Note. — After these verbs the Infinitive is the object of the action, like the Accusative with a transitive verb, but with some of them the Subjunctive is sometimes used; see 565, 568, etc.

2. The Infinitive is also used with Intransitive verbs meaning to be able, to be wont, be accustomed, etc.:

Mortem effugere nëmo potest, no one is able to escape death. Ruri esse soleo, I am wont to be in the country.

ORIGIN, EARLY USE, AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE INFINITIVE

- 608. Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been made up of Dative and Locative forms of a verbal noun. Indeed, in early Latin and in the poets, rarely in classical prose, it is used in special constructions with nearly the same force as the Dative of Purpose or End (425, 3). It is thus used:
- 1. With many Intransitive verbs, especially with those which denote Motion, e5, abe5, veni5:

Illa abiit aedem visere Minervae, she has gone to see the temple of Minerva; Pl. Bac. 900. Ibit aurum arcessere, he will go to get the gold. Non populare penätes venimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes; V. 1, 527.

2. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus ēgit altōs visere montēs, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains; H. 1, 2, 7. Quid habēs dicere, what have you to say? Dederat comam diffundere ventīs, he had given her hair to the winds to scatter; V. 1, 319.

3. Sometimes, chiefly in poetry and late prose, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive:

Gentem hortor amare focos, I exhort the race to love their homes; V. 3, 183. Cuncti suaserunt Italiam petere, all advised to seek Italy; V. 3, 863.

4. With a few adjectives:

Est paratus audire, he is prepared to hear; C. Inv. 1, 16, 23. Avidi committere pugnam, eager to engage in battle; O. M. 5, 75. Fons rivo dare nomen idoneus, a fountain worthy to give its name to the river; H. E. 1, 16, 12.

¹ In these examples with transitive verbs, observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under 424, and that the Accusative, Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under 433.

Note 1. — With adjectives, and participles used as adjectives, the Infinitive, rare in prose, is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantare peritus, skilled to sing, or in singing; V. Ec. 10, 82. Piger scribendi ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing; H. S. 1, 4, 12. Erat dignus amari, he was worthy to be loved. Certa mori, determined to die. Vitulus niveus videri, a calf snow-white to view; H. 4, 2, 59.

NOTE 2.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as copia est, tempus est:

Cupidō Stygiōs innāre lacūs, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes; V. 6. 133. Quibus molliter vivere cōpia erat, who had the means for living at ease; S. C. 17, 6. Tempus est māiōra cōnārī, it is time to attempt greater things; L. 6, 18, 18.

609. Infinitive as Object or Subject. — From this early use of the Infinitive to denote the Object or End of the Motion, or Action, expressed by the verb, was gradually developed its use as a General Modifier of the verb and as the Direct Object of the action:

Eximus lūdos visere, we have come out to see the sports; Pl. Cas. 855. Mortem effugere nēmo potest, no one is able to escape death. Māgna negotia volunt agere, they wish to perform great deeds. Scythis bellum inferre decrevit, he decided to wage war against the Scythians; N. 1, 8, 1.

1. From the use of the Infinitive as the direct object of the action was developed its use as the Subject of the verb:

Decreverunt non dare signum, they decided not to give the signal. Decretum est non dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal.

2. The Infinitive sometimes occurs with Prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, there is a great difference between giving and receiving; Sen. Ben. 5, 10, 1.

610. Historical Infinitive. — In lively descriptions, the Present Infinitive, like the Historical Present, is sometimes used for the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in primā acië versārī, omnia providēre, multum ipse pūgnāre, saepe hostem ferīre, Catiline was active in the front line, he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy; S. C. 60, 4.

¹ Visere illustrates this early use of the Infinitive, but agere is the direct object of volunt and inferre of decrevit.

1. The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action:

Omnia in pēius ruere ac retro referrī, all things change rapidly for the worse, and are borne backwards; V. G. 1, 199.

2. Remember that the subject of an Infinitive, when not historical, is put in the Accusative, and that it was originally developed from the direct object of the principal verb (414, 415):

Regem tradunt se abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself.

Note. — In this example, regem is the subject of abdidisse, but originally it was the direct object of tradunt.

- 3. An Infinitive and its subject, with their modifiers, form what is called an Infinitive clause, in distinction from the simple Infinitive. Thus, in the example just given, regem se abdidisse is an Infinitive clause.
- 611. Passive Construction. When a Transitive verb, which has an Accusative and an Infinitive depending upon it, becomes Passive, it may admit one or both of the following constructions:
- 1. The Personal construction, in which the noun or pronoun which is the object of the active becomes the subject of the passive. Thus, regem trādunt sē abdidisse, if made to take the personal construction in the passive, becomes rēx sē abdidisse trāditur, the king is said to have concealed himself.
- 2. The Impersonal construction, in which the verb is used impersonally, and the rest of the sentences unchanged, becomes the impersonal subject. Thus, regem tradunt se abdidisse, if made to take the impersonal construction in the passive, becomes regem se abdidisse traditur, it is said that the king concealed himself.
- Note 1.—A few verbs admit either the personal or the impersonal construction, as dicor, iūdicor, nūntior, putor, and trādor.
- Note 2.—A few verbs generally take the personal construction, as iubeor, vetor, and videor; also, arguor, audior, cognoscor, existimor, intellegor, invenior, prohibeor, reperior, etc.
- Note 3. A few verbs generally take the impersonal construction, as adfertur, confitendum est, creditur, fatendum est, proditur, etc.
- 612. A Predicate Noun, or a Predicate Adjective, after an Infinitive, or a Participle in a compound tense of an Infinitive, agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rules of agreement (393, 394). It is thus put:

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1. In the Nominative, when it is predicated of the principal subject:

Socrates parens philosophiae dici potest, Socrates can be called the father of philosophy; C. Fin. 2, 1.

2. In the Accusative, when predicated of the subject of the Infinitive, expressed or understood:

Ego me Phidiam esse mailem, I should prefer to be Phidias; C. Brut. 73, 257. Contentum suis rebus esse maximae sunt divitiae, to be content with one's own is very great wealth; C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

Note 1. — In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted, especially in the future:

Flümen neque hostes transituros existimabat, nor did he think that the enemy would cross the river; Caes. 6, 7, 5.

Note 2.—As a rare exception in early Latin, the participle in the Future Active Infinitive occurs with the ending trum regardless of the gender of the subject:

Altero to occisurum ait, altero vilicum, with one (sword) she says that she will kill you, with the other the bailiff; Pl. Cas. 698.

3. Generally in the Dative, but sometimes in the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patricio tribuno plebis fieri non licebat, it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people; C. Har. 21, 44. El consulem fieri licet, it is lawful for him to be made consul; Caes. C. 8, 1, 1.

INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS OBJECT

613. The Accusative and an Infinitive, or an Infinitive with a Subject Accusative, is used as the Object of a great variety of verbs, especially of verbs of Perceiving, Thinking, and Declaring:

Sentimus nivem esse albam, we perceive that snow is white. Nomo umquam proditori credendum putavit, no one ever thought that we ought to trust a traitor. Simonidem primum ferunt artem memoriae protulisse, they say that Simonides was the first to make known the art of memory; C. Or. 2, 36, 351.

- 1. Verbs of Perceiving and Thinking include audiō, videō, sentiō; cōgitō, putō, exīstimō, crēdō, spērō; intellegō, sciō, etc.
- Verbs of Declaring are dīcō, nārrō, nūntiō, doceō, ostendō, prōmittō, etc.
- 3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring as fāma fert, report says; testis sum, I am a witness, I testify; conscius

mihi sum, I am conscious, I know — also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nüllam mihl relätam esse grätiam, tü es testis, you are a witness that no grateful return has been made to me; C. Fam. 5, 5, 2.

4. Verbs of Perceiving generally take the Accusative with a Present Participle when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given act:

Catōnem vidī in bibliothēca sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library; C. Fin. 8, 2, 7. Videt sequentēs, ūnum haud procul ab sēsē abesse, he sees them following, one not far from himself; L. 1, 25, 8.

5. Note the following constructions with audio:

Socratem audio dicentem, I hear Socrates say; C. Fin. 2, 28, 90. Soleo audire Roscium, cum dicat, I am wont to hear Roscius say; C. Or. 1, 28, 129. Saepe ex socero meo audivi, cum is diceret, I have often heard (from) my father-in-law say; C. Or. 2, 6, 22.

6. Subjects Compared. — When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platonem ferunt sensisse idem quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39.

7. Predicates Compared. — When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second, or the second clause may take the Subjunctive with or without ut:

Num putātis dīxisse eum minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted ? C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. Audeō dīcere ipsōs potius cultōrēs agrōrum fore quam ut colī prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled; L. 2, 34.

614. An Infinitive Clause is also used as the Object of verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites, and of verbs of Emotion and Feeling.

Të tua frui virtute cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue; C. Brut. 97, 331. Pontem iubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Lex eum necari vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death.

Gaudeo id të mihi suādēre, I rejoice that you give me this advice. Minimē mirāmur tē laetārī, we do not wonder at all that you were pleased.

¹ As cupiō, optō, volō, nōlō, mālō, etc.; patior, sinō, imperō, iubeō; prohibeō, vetō, etc.; gaudeō, doleō, mīror, queror, aegrē ferō, etc.

1. Several verbs involving a Wish or a Command admit the Subjunctive, with or without ut or nē, when a new subject is introduced:

Volo ut mihi respondeas, I wish you would answer me; C. Vat. 6, 14. Quid vis faciam, what do you wish me to do? Suis imperavit ne quod telum in hostes reicerent, he commanded his men not to hurl any weapon back upon the enemy.

2. Volō, nōlō, mālō, and cupiō also admit the simple Infinitive when no new subject is introduced:

Vērum audīre non vult, he does not wish to hear the truth. Servīre quam pūgnāre māvult, he prefers to serve rather than to fight. Seīre cupio quid reprehendās, I desire to know what you criticise.

- 3. On the construction of volo, nolo, and malo, see also 565, 2.
- 4. Verbs of Emotion and Feeling sometimes take a clause with quod, that or because, and sometimes with cum, in nearly the same sense:

Gaudeō quod tē interpellāvī, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Dolēbam quod socium āmīseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Tibī grātiās agō, cum tantum litterae meae potuērumt, I thank you that my letter had so great influence; C. Fam. 18, 24, 2.

INFINITIVE OR INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS SUBJECT

615. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive Clause, is often used as the Subject of a verb:

Infinitive. — Diligi iūcundum est, to be loved is pleasant. Non est mentiri meum, to tell a falsehood is not my way. Peccare licet nēminī, to transgress is lawful for no one. Facere fortia Romanum est, to do brave deeds is Roman. Vacare culpā māgnum est solācium, to be free from fault is a great comfort. Cārum esse iucundum est, to be held dear is delightful; C. Fin. 1, 16, 53.

Infinitive Clause. — Caesari nuntiatum est equites accedere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching; Caes. 1, 46. Facinus est vincire civem Rōmānum; scelus, verberāre, to bind a Roman citizen is an outrage; to scourge him, a crime. Omnibus expedit, salvam esse rem publicam, it is important for all that the republic should be safe.

- 1. When the subject is an Infinitive or an Infinitive clause, the predicate is either a noun or adjective with the verb sum, or a verb used impersonally, as in the examples above.
- 2. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive clause, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegi necesse est esse deos, it is necessary that it be understood that there are gods; C. N. D. 1, 17, 44.

3. The Infinitive sometimes has a demonstrative or a possessive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hoc displicet philosophārī, this philosophizing displeases some persons; C. Fin. 1, 1. Vivere ipsum turpe est nobīs, to live is itself ignoble for us; cf. C. Att. 13, 28, 2. Tuom conferto amāre semper, always consider your loving (your love affairs); Pl. Curc. 29.

616. Special Constructions. — An Infinitive Clause is sometimes used

1. As a Predicate:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis sib! nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse posse, the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with these; Caes. 4, 8.

Note. - Occasionally an Infinitive without a Subject is so used:

Docto homini vivere est cogitare, to a learned man to live is to think; C. Tusc. 5, 38, 111.

2. As an Appositive:

Orāculum erat datum victrīcēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious. Hōc admīrātus sum, mentionem tē hērēditātum ausum esse facere, I wondered at this, that you dared to make mention of the inheritances; C. Ph. 2, 16, 42.

3. In Exclamations:

Të sic vexari, that you should be thus troubled! Mëne incepto dësistere victam, am I vanquished to abandon my undertaking? V. 1, 87.

4. In the Ablative Absolute:

Alexander, audītō Dārēum mōvisse, pergit, Alexander, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard) advanced; Curt. 5, 18, 1.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

- 617. The three tenses of the Infinitive, the Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time of the action respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb. Accordingly the Present denotes that the action is contemporaneous with that of the principal verb, the Perfect, that it is prior to it, and the Future, that it is subsequent to it.
 - 618. The Present Infinitive denotes Contemporaneous Action:

Nölite id velle quod fierī non potest, do not wish that which cannot be accomplished. Cato esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be

good rather than to seem good. Quousque dices pacem velle te, how long will you say that you desire peace?

1. The Present Infinitive, like the Present Indicative (533, 2), is sometimes used of actions really future:

Crās argentum dare sē dīxit, he said that he would give the silver on the morrow; T. Ph. 5, 31.

2. After the past tenses of debeo, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is generally used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after memini, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Liberos tuos erudire debuisti, you ought to have educated your children; C. Ver. 3, 69, 161. Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken. Consul esse potui, I might have been consul. Me Athenis audire memini, I remember to have heard at Athens; C. Leg. 1, 20, 58.

.619. The Future Infinitive denotes Subsequent Action:

Amicitiae nostrae memoriam spērō sempiternam fore, I hope that the recollection of our friendship will be eternal; C. Am. 4, 15. Sē ēversūrum cīvitātem minābātur, he threatened that he would overthrow the state. Pollicitus iis sum mē omnia esse factūrum, I promised them that I would do everything. Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant, they hope to be able to get possession of Gaul.

- 1. After spērō, iūrō, minor, and polliceor the Future Infinitive is generally used, as in the examples just given, though the Present and Perfect also occur. Moreover the Present, posse, is freely used with these verbs, as in the last example.
- 2. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic form, futuremesse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, generally Present or Imperfect, is sometimes used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs, I hope (it will come to pass) that this will fall to our lot; C. Tusc. 1. 34, 82. Non spērāverat Hannibal, fore ut ad sē dēficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him; L. 28, 44.

- This periphrastic form is somewhat rare, though it is the only form admissible in either voice in verbs which want the Supine and the Participle in turus.
- 4. In Passive and Deponent verbs, fore with the Perfect Participle is sometimes used with the force of a Future Perfect, to denote completed action in future time:

Possum dicere me satis ademptum fore, I can say that I shall have obtained enough; C. Sul. 9, 27 Debellatum mox fore rebantur, they thought that the war would soon be (have been) brought to a close; L. 23, 13, 6.

620. The Perfect Infinitive denotes Prior Action:

Platonem ferunt didicisse Pythagorea omnia, they say that Plato learned all the doctrines of Pythagoras; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 29. Conscius mini eram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offense had been committed by me.

1. The Perfect Infinitive is sometimes used where our idiom requires the Present, but it generally calls attention to the completion of the action. In the active voice this construction is rare except in the poets and in Livy, but in the passive it is quite freely used with verbs of wishing, especially with volō, even by the best writers:

Quos pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat, whom it delights to collect (to have collected) the Olympic dust¹; H. 1, 1, 3. Vēsānum tetigisse timent poētam, they fear to touch the mad poet. Quibus lēx consultum esse vult, whose interests the law requires us to consult; C. Div. C. 6, 21.

Note. - In this construction esse is very often omitted:

Illös monitös volö, I wish them admonished; C. C. 2, 12, 27. Nöllem factum, I should not wish it done; T. Ad. 165.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive, like the Perfect Passive Indicative, sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus **doctum esse** may mean either to have been instructed, or to be a learned man. In the best prose, **esse** is used if the result belongs to the present time; fuisse, if it belongs to past time; but subsequently this distinction between the Infinitive with **esse** and the Infinitive with fuisse gradually disappeared:

Populum alloquitur sõpītum fuisse rēgem ictū, she addressed the people, saying that the king had been stunned by the blow; L. 1, 41, 5.

GERUNDIVES AND GERUNDS

- 621. The Gerundive is a verbal adjective or participle, which is used in several special constructions. With the verb, sum, it forms the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, denoting Duty or Necessity. This conjugation may be either Personal or Impersonal.
- 1. The Periphrastic Conjugation of Transitive verbs generally takes the personal construction:

Occultae inimicitiae timendae sunt, concealed hostilities are to be feared. Caesarī omnia erant agenda; aciës Instruenda, mīlitēs cohortandī, sīgnum

¹ Referring to the chariot races at the Olympic Games.

dandum, Caesar had every thing to do (every thing was to be done); to form the line, exhort the soldiers, give the signal; Caes. 2, 20, 1.

2. The Passive Periphrastic conjugation of Intransitive verbs always takes the impersonal construction, and may govern the same case as the other forms of the verbs:

Resistendum senectūti est; pūgnandum contrā senectūtem, we must resist old age; we must fight against old age; C. Sen. 11, 85. Aut rei pūblicae mihi, aut mei obliviscendum est, I must forget either the republic or myself; cf. L. S. 7. 16.

3. Sometimes in Plautus and Lucretius, rarely in later writers, the Passive Periphrastic conjugation of transitive verbs takes the impersonal construction and admits the Accusative:

Mi hāc noctū agitandumst vigiliās, I must keep watch this night; Pl. Trin. 869. Poenās timendumst, we must fear punishment. Viam quam nobis ingrediendum est, a journey upon which we must enter.

622. The Gerundive is sometimes used as a Predicate Accusative to denote the Purpose of the action, chiefly after verbs of Giving, Delivering, Sending, Permitting, Undertaking, Caring for, etc., — dō, trādō, mittō, suscipiō, cūrō, etc.:

Praeda dīripienda data est, the booty was given up to be plundered; L. 22, 52, 5. Hōs Aeduis cūstōdiendōs trādit, these he delivered to the Aedui to guard. Caesar pontem faciendum cūrat, Caesar has a bridge made.

623. The Gerundive in direct agreement with a noun in an oblique case forms with that noun what is called the Gerundive construction:

Consilia urbis delendae, plans for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Locum oppido condendo ceperunt, they selected a place for founding a town. Ferrum, rem ad colendos agros necessariam, iron, a thing necessary in (to or for) cultivating the land. In amicis eligendis, in selecting friends (in friends to be selected).

1. This construction is confined to transitive verbs, including a few verbs originally transitive, though not thus used in classical prose, as **ütor**, **fruor**, fungor, and potior, etc.:

Ad haec ūtenda, for using these things; T. Heaut. 189. Ad suum mūnus fungendum, for discharging his duty. Spēs potiendorum castrorum, the hope of getting possession of the camp.

624. The Neuter of the Gerundive, used impersonally, forms the Gerund, a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers:

Sum cupidus të audiendi, I am desirous of hearing you; C. Or. 2, 4, 16. Ars vivendi, the art of living. Ad bene beātēque vivendum, for living well and happily; C. Fam. 6, 1, 3.

USE OF CASES IN THE GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION AND IN GERUNDS

- 625. All the oblique cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—occur both in the Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds, and in general they conform to the ordinary rules for the use of cases.
- **626.** Genitive. The Genitive in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds is used with nouns and adjectives:

Gerundive. — Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae, plans have been formed for destroying the city; C. Mur. 37, 80. Platonis studiosus audiendi, desirous of hearing Plato.

- Gerund. Sapientia ars vivendi putanda est, wisdom should be regarded as the art of living. Ius vocandi senatum, the right of summoning the senate. Artem vēra ac falsa diiūdicandi, the art of distinguishing true things from false; C. Or. 2, 38, 157.
- 1. In Transitive verbs the Gerundive construction is preferred, as in the first and second examples, though the Gerund is often used as in the fourth and fifth examples, but with neuter pronouns and adjectives the Gerund is regularly used; thus artem vēra dīiūdicandī, not artem vērōrum dīiūdicandōrum, because vērōrum may mean of true men.
- 2. In Intransitive verbs the Gerund is the regular construction, as in the third example.
- 3. In the Gerundive construction with the pronouns meī, tuī, suī, nostrī, and vestrī, the Gerundive ends in dī, as these pronouns were originally possessives in the Genitive singular masculine:

Sui purgandi causā, for the sake of excusing themselves; Caes. 4, 18, 5. Copia plācandi tui (feminine), an opportunity of appeasing you. Vestri adhortandi causā, for the purpose of exhorting you.

4. In rare instances the Genitive of the Gerund occurs with another Genitive depending upon the same noun:

Lūcis 1 tuendī cōpia, the privilege of beholding the light; cf. Pl. Capt. 1008. Rēiciendī iūdicum 1 potestās, the power of challenging the judges; cf. C. Væ. 2, 31, 77.

5. The Genitive in the Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds sometimes denotes Purpose or Tendency:

Imperium conservandae libertatis fuerat, the government had aimed at the preservation of liberty (had been of liberty to be preserved); S. C. 6, 7. Vereor te laudare ne id adsentandi facere existumes, I fear to praise you, lest you should think that I do it for the purpose of flattery. Proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitatis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity.

Note. — Libertatis, in the first example, is in origin a Predicate Genitive after fuerat, and the Genitive in the other examples follows the same analogy.

627. Dative. — The Dative is rare both in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds, but it occurs with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adiecit, Numa turned his mind to the appointment of the priests. Cum solvendo non essent, since they were not able to pay. Tempora demetendis fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gathering fruits; C. Sen. 19, 70. Sunt acuendis puerorum ingeniis non inutiles lusus, games are useful (not useless) for sharpening the intellects of boys; Quint. 1, 3, 11.

- 1. The Dative of the Gerund with a direct object occurs only in Plantus.
- 2. The Dative in these constructions often denotes Purpose, or the End for which anything is done, and is sometimes used after certain official names, as decemvirī, triumvirī, comitia, etc.:

Ea tuendae Syriae parantur, these preparations are made for the purpose of guarding Syria; Tac. An. 15, 4. Comitia consulibus rogandis habuit, he held the comitia for the election of consuls; C. Div. 1, 17, 33. Decemviros legibus scribendis creavimus, we have appointed decemvirs to prepare laws; L. 4, 4, 8.

628. Accusative. — The Accusative in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds² is used with a few prepositions, generally with ad:

Haec res Caesari difficultatem ad consilium capiendum adferebat, this fact presented a difficulty to Caesar in the way of forming his plans; Caes. 7, 10.

¹ Here lūcis, though apparently limiting tuendī, probably depends upon cōpia, and iūdicum probably depends upon potestās.

² The use of the Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is without classical authority.

Ad audiendum parātī sumus, we are prepared to hear. Inter lūdendum, during play. In rem pūblicam conservandam, on the preservation of the republic.

629. Ablative. — The Ablative of Separation and Source in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds generally takes a preposition, — ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex:

Ā pecūnišs capiendis hominēs absterrēre, to deter men from accepting bribes; C. Ver. 2, 58, 142. Dēterrēre ā scribendō, to deter from writing. Dē nostrō amīcō plācandō, in regard to appeasing our friend.

1. The Ablative of the Gerundive construction occurs also with **prō**, and in late writers with one or two other prepositions:

Prō omnibus gentibus conservandis, for the sake of preserving all races; C. Off. 3, 5, 25.

2. The Ablative of the Gerundive construction occurs after a comparative in the following sentence:

Nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessārium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor; C. Off. 1, 15, 47.

630. The Instrumental Ablative in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds is generally used without a preposition:

Loquendi elegantia augetur legendis örātöribus, elegance of speech is promoted by reading the orators; C. Or. 3, 10, 39. Caesar dandō, sublevandō, ignōscendō glōriam adeptus est, Caesar obtained glory by giving, aiding, and pardoning. Salūtem hominibus dandō, by giving safety to men. Fortia facta memorandō, by recounting brave deeds.

1. The Gerundive seems at times, especially in the poets, to lose its distinctive force and to be nearly equivalent to a present or perfect participle:

Trigintā māgnōs volvendis mēnsibus (characteristic) orbīs, thirty great circles of revolving months; V. 1, 269.

631. The Locative Ablative generally takes the preposition in, but it is sometimes used without it, especially in the poets:

Brūtus in līberandā patriā est interfectus, Brutus was slain in freeing his country. Virtūtēs cernuntur in agendō, virtues are seen in action. In amīcīs ēligendīs negligentēs, careless in choosing friends. In suum cuique tribuendō, in giving to every one his due; C. Brut. 21, 85.

1. After prepositions the Ablative of a Gerund with a direct object, as in the last example, is exceedingly rare.

SUPINES

- 632. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in um, an Accusative, and a form in $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, generally an Ablative, though perhaps sometimes a Dative.
 - 1. The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:

Lēgātos mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid.

Supines in um

633. Rule. — The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express purpose:

Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Mittit rogātum vāsa, he sends to ask for the vases. Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution; L. 8, 25, 6.

1. The Supine in um is sometimes used after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Daturne illa Pamphilo hodië nuptum, is she given in marriage to-day to Pamphilus? T. And. 801. Lacedaemonios senem sessum recepisse, that the Lacedaemonians welcomed the old man to a seat; C. Sen. 18, 68.

2. The Supine in um with the verb e5 is equivalent to the forms of the Active Periphrastic conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonos omnes perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good; cf. S. C. 52, 12.

3. The Supine in um with iri, the Infinitive Passive of e5, forms, it will be remembered (235, 2), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum visum īrī ā mē putō, I think that Brutus will be seen by me.

- 634. The Supine in um is not very common, though it occurs in a large number of verbs, but Purpose may be denoted by various other constructions:
 - 1. By the Subjunctive with ut, ne, quo, quo minus; see 568.
 - 2. By the Subjunctive in Relative clauses; see 590.
 - 3. By Gerundives or Gerunds; see 622, 626, 5.
 - 4. By Future Participles; see 638, 3.

¹ According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Supine in um is found in one hundred and seventy-nine verbs, and also forms an element in the Future Infinitive Passive of fifty-seven verbs.

Supines in ū

635. Rule. — The Supine in ū is generally used as an Ablative; sometimes perhaps as a Dative:

Quid est tam iūcundum audītū, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? C. Or. 1, 8, 31. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death; C. Am. 3, 12. Sed ita dictū opus est, but it is necessary to say this (so, thus). Incrēdibile memorātū est, it is incredible to relate. Pudet dictū, it is a shame to tell; Tac. Agr. 32.

- 1. The Supine in ū is used with adjectives, as facilis, difficilis; crēdibilis, incrēdibilis; iūcundus, iniūcundus; mīrābilis, terribilis, etc.; with fās, nefās, opus, and in early or late Latin, with two or three verbs.
- 2. The Supine in ū is comparatively rare. The most common examples are audītū, aditū, cōgnitū, dictū, factū; intellēctū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, relātū, scītū, tāctū, trāctātū, vīctū, vīsū.
- 3. It is probable that the Supine in ū contained originally the forms both of the Dative and of the Ablative, and that such forms as memorātuī are illustrations of the former:

Istaec lepida sunt memorātuī, these things are fine to relate; Pl. Bac. 62.

4. It is generally assumed that the second Supine never takes an object, but it may take the Ablative with a preposition, as in the second example, or an adverb, as in the third.

PARTICIPLES

636. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb to which it belongs:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, the mind, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things; C. Tusc. 1, 27, 67.

1. Remember that participles are sometimes used as substantives (494):

Consilio condentium urbes, in accordance with the policy of the founders of (those who found) cities. Nihil difficile amanti puto, I think nothing difficult for a lover.

2. Participles used as substantives sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belong to them as participles, and sometimes assume adjective modifiers which belong to them as substantives:

¹ According to Draeger, II., p. 833, on the authority of E. L. Richter, Dē Supīnīs Latīnae Linguae, the second Supine is found in one hundred and nine verbs, and is used with one hundred and sixty-two different adjectives.

Non tam praemia sequi recte factorum quam ipsa recte facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds so much as good deeds themselves; C. Mil. 85, 96. Factum praeclarum atque divinum, an excellent and divine deed; C. Ph. 2, 44, 114.

3. A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun with the preposition without:

Voluptātēs non ērubēscēns persequitur, he pursues pleasures without blushing; C. N. D. 1, 40, 111. Nātūra dedit ūsūram vītae, nūlla praestitūtā diē, nature has given the loan of life without fixing the day for payment.

4. The Perfect Participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of:

Homerus fuit ante Romam conditam, Homer lived before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded); C. Tusc. 1, 1, 8. Proditae patriae crimen, the charge of having betrayed the country.

637. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Qualifying Relative clauses:

Omnës aliud agentës, aliud simulantës, improbi, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest.

- 638. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Adverbial clauses.
- 1. Participles sometimes denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

Platō scrībēns est mortuus, Plato died while writing; C. Sen. 5, 18. Fortissimē pūgnāns interficitur, he is slain while bravely fighting. Renûntiant, sē perfidiam veritōs revertisse, they report that they returned because they feared perfidy. Rōmānī grātulantēs Horātium accipiunt, the Romans receive Horatius with congratulations (congratulating). Sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun by its rising causes the day; C. N. D. 2, 40, 102.

2. Participles sometimes denote Condition, or Concession:

Reluctante nătūră, inritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. Ista iam diū exspectăns, non audeo tamen flăgităre, though I have been long expecting your treatise, yet I do not dare to ask for it; C. Ac. 1, 1, 8.

3. Participles sometimes denote Purpose, the Future in Livy and late writers, the Gerundive even in the best authors (622):

Rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, he returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war; L. 42, 62. Dedit mihī epistulam legendam tuam, he gave me your letter to read.

639. Participles are sometimes used in Latin where principal clauses would be required in English:

Classem devictam cepit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered); N. 5, 2, 3.

1. Perfect Participles sometimes repeat the action of the preceding verb, or give its result:

Exercitum fundit, fusum persequitur, he routs the army and pursues it routed; L. 1, 10, 4.

640. The Tenses of Participles, Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time, respectively, as Present, Past, and Future relatively to that of the principal verb. Thus, in relation to the principal action, the Present represents contemporaneous action, the Perfect, prior action, and the Future, subsequent action:

Mendācī hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentī crēdere solēmus, we are not wont to believe a liar even when he speaks the truth; cf. C. Div. 2, 71, 146. Ūva mātūrāta dulcēscit, the grape, when it has been ripened (prior action), becomes sweet. Bona semper placitūra laudat, he praises blessings that will always please (subsequent action).

1. The Perfect Participle in deponent and passive verbs is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Isdem ducibus ūsus Numidās mittit, employing the same persons as guides he sends the Numidians; Caes. 2, 7, 1. Incēnsās perfert nāvīs, he reports the firing of the ships (ships on fire); V. 5, 665.

2. The Perfect Participle with habeō has nearly the same force as the corresponding English Perfect with have:

Equitatum coactum habebat, he had collected the cavalry (had the cavalry collected); Caes. 1, 15, 1.

3. Perfect Participles are often used as predicate adjectives to denote the Result of the action:

Id parātī sunt facere, they are prepared to do this; C. Quinct. 2, 8.

4. The want of a Perfect Active Participle is sometimes supplied by a Temporal Clause, and sometimes by a Perfect Passive Participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Postquam in Treviros venit, Rhenum transire constituit, having arrived among the Treviri, he decided to cross the Rhine; Caes. 6, 9, 1. Equitatu praemisso subsequebatur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed.

5. The want of a Present Passive Participle is generally supplied by a Temporal clause:

Cum à Catône laudàbar, reprehendi me à ceteris facile patiebar, being praised by Cato, I cheerfully bore being (to be) censured by the others; C. Orator, 13, 41.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE - ORATIO OBLIQUA

641. Direct and Indirect Discourse. — When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Direct Discourse, Orātio Rēcta; but when he expresses thoughts, whether his own, or those of another, in any other form, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse, Orātio Oblīqua. The Indirect Discourse regularly depends upon a verb of Saying, Thinking, Perceiving, etc.:

Direct. - Plato in Italiam venit, Plato came into Italy.

Indirect with ferunt. — Platonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy.

Direct. — Ütilis est scientia, knowledge is useful.

Indirect with arbitror. — \overline{U} tilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful.

1. Words quoted without change belong to the Direct Discourse:

Direct. — Duumvirös secundum legem facio, I appoint duumvirs according to law.

Direct with inquit. — Rex "duumviros" inquit "secundum legem facio," the king said, "I appoint duumvirs according to law."

MOODS AND TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Moods in Principal Clauses

642. Rule. — The principal clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative:

Dīcō classem māgnam superātam esse atque dēpressam, I say that a large fleet was conquered and sunk. Caesar respondit sē id factūrum, Caesar replied that he would do it. Catō mīrārī sē āiēbat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Hippiās glōriātus est ānulum sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, I Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hands; C. Or. 3, 32, 127.

¹ In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) classis magna superata est atque döpressa, (2) id faciam, (3) mīror, (4) anulum mea manu confēcī. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in faciam, mīror, and confēcī are expressed with the Infinitive: sē factūrum, mīrārī sē, sē confēcisse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied.

Ad postulāta Caesaris pauca respondit; quid sibī vellet? cūr in suās possessionēs venīret,¹ to the demands of Caesar he replied briefly: what did he (Caesar) wish? why did he come into his possessions? Caes. 1, 44, 7. Respondērunt; cūr suī quicquam esse imperiī trāns Rhēnum postulāret,¹ they replied; why did he demand that anything beyond the Rhine should be under his sway? Postulāvit eadem, nē Aeduīs bellum īnferret, obsidēs redderet,² he made the same demands, that he should not make war upon the Aeduī, and that he should return the hostages. Scrībit Labiēnō cum legione veniat,² he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with his legion; Caes. 5, 46, 4.

1. The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression, especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Pythia praecepit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sibl sumerent; incepta prospera futura, Pythia ordered that they should take Miltiades as their commander (telling them), that their efforts would be successful; N. 1, 1, 8.

2. Rhetorical Questions — which are questions only in form, as they are used for rhetorical effect in place of declarative sentences — take the Infinitive. Here belong most questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person:

Respondit, num memoriam deponere posse, he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes. 1, 14, 3. Docebant a Caesare conventura subsidia; quid esse levius, etc., they showed that assistance would come from Caesar; what was more inconsiderate, etc.?

3. Deliberative and Potential Questions generally retain the Subjunctive from the Direct Discourse:

In spem vēnerat, sē sine pūgnā rem cōnficere posse; cūr fortūnam periclitārētur, he had hoped (had come into the hope) to be able to accomplish the work without a battle; why should he try fortune? Caes. C. 1, 72, 1.

4. In the Indirect Discourse, affirmative commands, except after verbs of wishing and asking, generally take the Subjunctive without ut, but negative commands take the Subjunctive with nē; see examples.

¹ In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) quid tibi vis? cūr in meās possessionēs venis? and (2) cūr tui quicquam esse imperii cis Rhēnum postulās?

² In Direct Discourse, (1) nöli Aeduis bellum inferre, obsidēs redde, and (2) cum legione vēnī.

³ Direct Discourse, (1) num memoriam dēponere possum? = memoriam dēponere non possum, (2) quid est levius? = nihil est levius.

⁴ Direct Discourse, cur fortunam pericliter?

5. After iubeō and vetō, commands are regularly expressed by the Accusative with the Infinitive, but occasionally by the Subjunctive with or without ut or nē, especially in poetry:

Năvēs aedificări iubet, he orders vessels to be built. Castra muniri vetuit, he forbade the camp to be fortified. Iubeto ut certet Amyntas, bid Amyntas be my rival; V. E. 5, 15.

Moods in Subordinate Clauses

643. Rule. — The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Subjunctive:

Dīcō classem māgnam quae ad Ītaliam raperētur, superātam esse,¹ I say that a large fleet, which was hurrying toward Italy, was conquered; C. Man. 3, 21. Caesar respondit, sē id quod in Nerviīs fēcisset, factūrum,² Caesar replied that he would do that which he had done in the case of the Nerviī. Hippiās glōriātus est ānulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōn-fēcisse,³ Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the ring which he wore.

Clauses introduced by relative pronouns, or by relative adverbs
 — as ubf, unde, quārē, etc. — sometimes have the force of independent clauses, and accordingly take the Infinitive with subject Accusative:

Ad eum defertur, esse civem Romanum qui quereretur, quem (= et eum) adservatum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard; C. Ver. 5, 62, 100. Demonstrabitur, ne si iūdicio quidem illa damnata esset potuisse hunc ipsum de illa supplicium sūmere; quare esse indignum, it will be shown that not even if she had been condemned by a court of justice would he have been able to inflict punishment upon her; that therefore it was a disgraceful act.

2. Clauses introduced by certain conjunctions, as ut, quam, quamquam, quia, and cum, sometimes take the Infinitive with subject Accusative, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dīxisse eum minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. Dīcit sē moenibus inclūsos tenēre eos, quia per agros vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because they would wander through the fields. Cum interim lēgem tantam vim habēre, when in the mean time the law has such force; L. 4, 51, 4.

¹ Direct, classis māgna quae ad Ītaliam rapiēbātur superāta est.

² Direct, faciam id quod in Nervils fēci.

⁸ Direct, ānulum quem habeō meā manū confēci.

3. Parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the Indirect Discourse, without strictly forming a part of it, take the Indicative:

Referunt silvam esse, quae appellätur Bacenis, they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis; Caes. 6, 10, 5. Condrusos, qui Germani appellantur, arbitrari ad XL milia, that they estimated the Condrusi, who are called Germans, at forty thousand.

4. Sometimes clauses which are not parenthetical, especially relative and temporal clauses, take the Indicative to emphasize the fact stated:

Certior factus est ex ea parte vici, quam Gallis concesserat, omnes discessisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls; Cass. 3, 2.

- 644. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; but notice the following special points:
- 1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs sibī dentur, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied that if hostages should be given to him, he would make peace with them; Caes. 1, 14, 6. Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, neque ūllōs vacāre agrōs, quī darī possint, the close of the speech was that there were not any lands unoccupied which could be given.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Cum trigeminis agunt reges, ut pro sua patria dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, the kings arrange with the triplet-brothers that they shall fight for their country; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory shall have been); L. 1, 24, 2.

PRONOUNS AND PERSONS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

645. In passing from the Direct Discourse to the Indirect, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Hippiās gloriātus est, pallium quo amictus esset, sē suā manū i confēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the cloak which he wore

¹ Direct, ego meā manū. Ego becomes sē, and meā becomes suā,

(in which he was clad). Respondit sī obsidēs ab iIs sibī' dentur, sēsē cum iIs pācem esse factūrum, he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them.

1. Thus (1) ego is changed to suī, sibī, etc., or to ipse; meus and noster to suus; (2) tū to is or ille, sometimes to suī, etc., tuus and vester to suus, or to the Genitive of is; and (3) hīc and iste generally to ille, but hīc is sometimes retained. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed:

Miror të ad më nihil scribere, I wonder that you do not write anything to me; C. Att. 8, 12, B. 1.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

646. Conditional sentences of the First and of the Second Form in the Indirect Discourse take the Subjunctive in the Condition and the Infinitive in the Conclusion:

Respondit sī quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre, he replied that if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him; Caes. 1, 34, 2. Id sī fieret, intellegēbat māgnō cum periculō futūrum, he understood that if this should be done, it would be attended with great danger; Caes. 1, 10, 2.

- 1. The Future Infinitive is the regular construction in the Conclusion of the second form, as in the last example.
- 2. The Conclusion takes the Subjunctive when it is Imperative or Interrogative, and when it is brought into such connection as to require that mood, as when it is the purpose or result of some other action:

Scribit Labiēnō, sī reī pūblicae commodō facere posset, cum legione veniat, he wrote to Labienus to come with his legion, if he could do so consistently with the interests of the republic; Caes. 5, 46, 4. Caesar suās copiās prodūxit, ut sī vellet Ariovistus proelio contendere, eī potestās non deesset, Caesar led out his forces in order that, if Ariovistus wished to fight, he might have the opportunity; Caes. 1, 48, 3.

647. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form in the Indirect Discourse depending on a verb of Saying, Thinking, etc., retain the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive unchanged in the Condition, regardless of the Tense of the Principal verb, but in the

¹ Direct, a võbīs mihĭ . . . ego võbīscum. Võbīs becomes iis, võbiscum becomes cum iis, mihĭ becomes sibĭ, and ego, sēsē.

² Direct, sī quid Caesar mē vult illum ad mē venīre oportet.

⁸ Direct, id sī fiat or fiet, māgnō cum periculō sit or erit.

Conclusion they take the Periphrastic Infinitive, the Present in urum esse when the condition belongs to present time, and the Perfect in urum fuisse when it belongs to past time:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, he replied that, if he needed anything from Caesar, he would have come to him; Caes. 1, 34, 2. Clāmitābat, neque aliter Carnūtēs consilium fuisse captūros, neque Eburonēs, sī ille adesset, ad castra ventūros esse, he cried out that otherwise the Carnutes would not have conceived the purpose, nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp; Caes. 5, 29, 2.

- 1. The conclusion of this form of the conditional sentence in the Indirect Discourse corresponds to the Periphrastic Indicative in the Direct Discourse. Thus, in the first example, the conclusion in the Direct Discourse would be ad tē ventūrus fuī. Hence we have here the simple change from the Periphrastic Indicative to the Periphrastic Infinitive. For the close relationship in meaning between the Periphrastic Indicative and the regular Subjunctive, see 582, 1.
- 2. In the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form the circumlocution, futurum esse ut or fore ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive for present time, and futurum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive for past time, is used in the passive voice and sometimes in the active:

Nisi nuntii essent allātī, existimābant futurum fuisse ut oppidum āmitterētur, they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought; cf. Caes. C. 3, 101, 3.

3. Remember that in the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form, certain special verbs (583) generally take the ordinary forms of the historical tenses of the Indicative. In the Indirect Discourse the Perfect Infinitive of course takes the place of this Indicative, and in deponent and passive verbs it sometimes occurs where we expect the circumlocution:

Platonem existimo, si voluisset, gravissime potuisse dicere, I think that Plato could have spoken most forcibly, if he had wished; C. Off. 1, 1, 4. Respondit, si populus Romanus alicuius iniuriae sibi conscius fuisset, non fuisse difficile cavere, he replied that if the Roman people had been conscious of any wrong doing, it would not have been difficult for them to be on their guard. Nemo mihi persuadebit, multos viros tanta esse conatos, nisi cernerent, etc., no one will persuade me that many men would have attempted so great things, unless they perceived, etc.; C. Sen. 23, 82.

648. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form depending on verbs which require the Subjunctive admit the following constructions:

I. If the condition relates to present time, the entire sentence remains unchanged:

Honestum tale est, ut vel si ignorarent id homines, sua tamen pulchritudine esset laudabile, honor is such that, even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be praiseworthy because of its own beauty; cf. C. Fin. 2, 15, 49.

- II. If the condition relates to past time, the condition remains unchanged, but the conclusion, though unchanged in the passive, takes one of the following forms in the active:
- 1. If it is an indirect question, the Perfect or Pluperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is used, the tense being determined by the general law for the sequence of tenses:

Die quidnam factūrus fueris sī cēnsor fuissēs, say what you would have done, if you had been censor; L. 9, 33.

2. If it is not an indirect question, the Perfect Subjunctive of the Periphrastic Conjugation is generally used:

Quis dubitat, quin, si Saguntinis tulissemus opem, totum in Hispaniam aversuri bellum fuerimus, who doubts that if we had carried aid to the Saguntines, we should have transferred the entire war to Spain? L. 31, 7.

3. But verbs denoting Ability, Duty, etc., possum, oportet, etc., generally take the Perfect Subjunctive of the regular conjugation:

Haud dubium fuit, quin, nisi ea mora intervenisset, castra capi potuerint, there was no doubt that the camp could have been taken, if that delay had not occurred; I. 24, 42.

INDIRECT CLAUSES

- **649.** Indirect Discourse in its widest application includes, not only reported speeches, but all indirect clauses.
- I. Subordinate Clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than that of the speaker, or on the authority of the speaker at any other time than that when the statements are reported, regularly take the Subjunctive:

Laudat Āfricānum quod fuerit abstinēns, he praised Africanus because he was temperate; C. Off. 2, 22, 76. Hospitem inclāmāvit quod mihī fidem habēre noluisset, he rebuked the stranger because he had been unwilling to put confidence in me. Privātim petere coepērunt, quoniam cīvitāti consulere non

¹ Quod . . . abstinens, on the ground that, etc., the reason in the mind of the eulogist, not of the historian.

possent, they began to present their personal petitions, since they could not act for the state. Libros quos frater suus reliquisset, mih donavit, he gave me the books which his brother had left; C. Att. 2, 1, 12.

II. Indirect Questions are subordinate interrogative clauses and accordingly take the Subjunctive:

Epaminondās quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, Epaminondas inquired whether his shield was safe; cf. C. Fin. 2, 30, 97. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, what the nature of the soul may be, the soul knows not. Quaeritur, cūr doctissimi hominēs dissentiant, the question is asked why the most learned men disagree. Mīror cūr mē accūsēs, I wonder why you accuse me. Ut tē oblectēs scīre cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself.

1. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question:

Cupiō scire ubl sis hiemātūrus, I desire to know where you are going to spend the winter.

2. In indirect questions **ne** and **num** are used without any perceptible difference of meaning:

Quaesīvit, salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe; C. Fin. 2, 80, 97. Num quid vellem, rogāvit, he asked whether I wished anything; C. Att. 6, 8, 6.

3. SI is sometimes best rendered, to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc. In this sense it generally takes the Subjunctive, but it also occurs with the Indicative, especially in the poets:

Tē adeunt, sī quid vīs, they come to you to see if you wish anything; C. Fam. 3, 9, 2. Inspice, sī possum donāta repōnere laetus, see whether I can cheerfully return your gifts.

4. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted as the direct object of the principal verb:

Quis tuum patrem, quis esset, audīvit, who ever heard who your father was (heard of your father who he was)? C. Deiot. 11, 30. Nōstī Mārcellum, quam tardus sit, you know how slow Marcellus is. Nōn mē pernōstī, quālis sim, you do not know what sort of a person I am: T. And. 508.

¹ Quoniam . . . non possent, since they could not, as they thought.

² Quos . . . reliquisset, which he said his brother had left.

⁸ Here no question is directly asked; we are simply told that Epaminondas asked a question, but this statement involves the question, salvusne est clipeus, is my shield safe?

5. A Personal Passive construction, corresponding to this form of the active, is sometimes used, although indirect questions are in general either the objects of active verbs or the subjects of impersonal passive verbs:

Perspiciuntur quam sint levēs, it is seen (they are seen) how inconstant they are; C. Am. 17, 63.

6. Often in early Latin, as in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in the poets and in late writers, the Indicative is used in indirect questions, or at least in questions which would take the indirect form in the best prose:

Loquere tū, quid puero factumst, tell what has been done with the boy; Pl. True. 757. Quin tū dic, quid est quod mē velis, nay, tell what it is, that you wish of me; T. And. 45.

- 650. Indirect Double Questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (380).
- 1. They generally take in the first member utrum, or ne, and in the second an, sometimes anne, in the sense of or, and necne, or an non in the sense of or not:

Difficile dictū est, utrum timuerint, an dilēxerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Quaeritur, sintne dī necne sint, the question is asked whether or not there are gods; C. N. D. 1, 22, 61.

2. But they often omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an, or ne in the sense of or, and necne, or an non, in the sense of or not:

Vivat an mortuus sit, quis cūrat, who cares whether he is living or dead?
C. Ph. 13, 16, 33. Filius nepōsne fuerit parum liquet, whether he was the son or the grandson is not at all clear. Sapientia beātōs efficiat necne, quaestiō est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question.

3. Other forms of indirect double questions, as those with ne...ne, an ...an, etc., and those without any interrogative particles, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominesne feraene, quaerere constituit, he determined to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts; V. 1, 308. Velit, nolit, scire difficile est, it is difficult to find out whether he wishes it or does not wish it.

4. An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used after expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubitō an, nesciō an, haud sciō an, I doubt whether not, I know not whether not = I am inclined to think; dubium est an, incertum est an, it is uncertain whether not = it is probable:

¹ Observe that the passive construction corresponds to the active perspiciunt, eos quam sint leves, they perceive them, how inconstant they are, a form entirely analogous to nosti Marcellum, quam tardus sit, given above.

Dubitō an Thrasybūlum prīmum omnium pōnam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all (i.e. I am inclined to think I should). Haud sciō an omnium praestantissimus, I am inclined to think the most distinguished of all; C. N. D. 2, 4, 11.

651. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished

1. From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Relative. — Ego quod sentio loquar, I shall say what (that which) I think. Interrogative. — Dicam quid intellegam, I shall state what I understand.

2. From clauses introduced by nesciō quis = quīdam, some one, nesciō quō modo = quōdam modō, in some way, mīrum quantum, wonderfully much, wonderfully, etc. These take the Indicative:

Hie nescio quis loquitur, here some one (I know not who) speaks. Id mīrum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i.e. it wonderfully profited). Mīrē quam dēlectat, how wonderfully it delights.

652. Clauses closely dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive are virtually Indirect clauses, and as such they generally take the Subjunctive:

Quam bellum fuit confiteri nescire quod nescires, what a fine thing it was to admit not to know what you did not know; C. N. D. 1, 30, 84. Recordatione nostrae amicitiae sic fruor ut beate vixisse videar quia cum Scipione vixerim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Vereor ne, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I fear that while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it; C. Leg. 1, 4, 12. Cum timidius ageret quam consuesset, since he acted more timidly than had been his custom; Caes. C. 1, 19. 8.

1. In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, the Subjunctive is used, when the dependent clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given, but the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated, and often when they are introduced by dum, especially in the poets and historians:

Milites misit, ut eos qui fügerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i.e. the fugitives); Caes. 5, 10, 1. Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam vel in eis quos numquam vidimus, diligāmus, so great is the power of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Petam ā

vobis ut me, dum de his disputo iúdiciis, audiatis, I shall ask of you that you hear me while I discuss these decisions; C. Clu. 82, 89.

653. The directions already given for converting the Direct Discourse, Ōrātiō Rēcta, into the Indirect, Ōrātiō Oblīqua, are further illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

Direct Discourse.

Trānsiī Rhēnum non meā sponte sed rogātus et arcessītus ā Gallis; non sine magnā spē māgnīsque praemiis domum propinquosque relīquī; sēdēs habeo in Galliā ab ipsīs concessās, obsidēs ipsorum voluntāte datos; stīpendium capio iūre bellī, quod victorēs victīs imponere consuērunt. Non ego Gallis sed Gallī mihi bellum intulērunt.

Ego prius in Galliam vēnī quam populus Rōmānus. Numquam ante hōc tempus exercitus populī Rōmānī Galliae prōvinciae fīnēs ēgressus est. Quid tibī vīs? Cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs?

Eō mihi minus dubitātionis datur quod eās rēs quās vos, lēgāti Helvētiī, commemorāstis memoriā teneo, atque eo gravius fero quo minus merito populi Romāni accidērunt.

Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī volō, num etiam recentium iniūriārum, quod mē invītō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāstis, quod Aeduōs, quod Allobrogas vexāstis, memoriam dēpōnere possum?

Cum haec ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs **ā vōbīs mihǐ** dabuntur utī ea quae **pollicēminī** factūrōs **intellegam**, **vōbīscum** pācem faciam.

Indirect Discourse.

Ariovistus respondit:

Trānsisse Rhēnum nōn sponte sed rogātum et arcessītum ā Gallīs; non sine magnā spē māgnīsque praemiīs domum propinquōsque reliquisse; sēdēs habēre in Galliā ab ipsīs concessās, obsidēs ipsorum voluntāte datos : stīpendium capere iūre bellī quod victores victīs imponere consuërint. Non sësë Gallis sed Gallös sibi bellum intulisse. Sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Romanum. Numquam ante hoc tempus exercitum populi Romani Galliae provinciae finës ëgressum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessiones venīret? Caes. B. G. 1, 44.

Caesar ita respondit:

Eō sibi minus dubitătionis darī quod eās rēs quās lēgāti Helvētii commemorāssent memoriā tenēret atque eō gravius ferre quō minus meritō populi Romāni accidissent.

Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī vellet, num etiam recentium iniūriārum, quod eð invītō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāssent, quod Aeduōs, quod Allobrogas vexāssent, memoriam dēpōnere posse?

Cum ea ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs ab iīs sibī dentur, uti ea quae polliceantur factūros intellegat, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum; Caos. 1, 14.

USE OF PARTICLES

USE OF ADVERBS

654. Rule. — Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs:

Sapientēs semper fēlīciter vīvunt, the wise always live happily. Rēs haud sānē difficilis, a thing not so very difficult.

Note 1.—For Adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 495, 3; for Adverbs in place of adjectives, see 497, 4; for Adverbs with participles used substantively, see 636, 2.

Note 2. — Sic and ita mean so, thus. Ita has also a limiting sense, as in ita... si, so... if, only... if. Adeō means to such a degree or result; tam, tantopere, so much. Tam is used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

- 655. The common negative particles are non, ne, haud.
- 1. Non is the usual negative; no is used with the Optative and Volitive Subjunctive and with the Imperative, and haud, in haud scio an and with adjectives and adverbs: haud mīrābile, not wonderful; haud aliter, not otherwise. No non after vidē is often best rendered whether.
- 656. Two negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Aperte adulantem nemo non videt, every one recognizes the open flatterer. Nec hoc ille non vidit, he saw this (nor did he not see this).

- 1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

 non nemo, some one non nihil, something non numquam, sometimes numquam non, every one nihil non, everything numquam non, always
- 2. After a general negative, nē... quidem gives emphasis to the negation, and neque... neque, nēve... nēve, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Numquam Scīpionem nē minimā quidem rē offendī, never have I displeased Scipio even in the smallest thing; C. Am. 27, 108. Nēmo umquam neque poēta neque orātor, qui quemquam meliorem quam sē arbitrārētur, no one was ever either a poet or an orator who thought any one better than himself; C. Att. 14, 20, 2.

3. Non modo (or solum) non, sed no... quidem means not only not, but not even, and non modo (solum), sed no... quidem, has the same

meaning when the verb standing in the second clause belongs also to the first:

Ego non modo tibl non irascor, sed ne reprehendo quidem factum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even censure your act. Adsentatio non modo amico, sed ne libero quidem digna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man; C. Am. 24, 89.

4. Neque or nec is generally used instead of et non:

Neque mē quisquam cognovit, and no one recognized me.

5. Instead of et with a negative pronoun or adverb, neque or nec with the corresponding affirmative is generally used: for et nullus, neque ullus; for et nemo, neque quisquam; for et numquam, neque umquam:

Nec ametur ab ullo, and may he be loved by no one.

Note. — For the use of Prepositions, see 420, 490.

USE OF COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

657. Copulative Conjunctions (315) meaning and, also, and not, unite similar constructions:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Etiam atque etiam, again and again. Senātus populusque, the senate and people. Vēnī Athēnās neque mē quisquam āgnōvit, I went to Athens, and no one recognized me; C. Tusc. 5, 36, 104.

- 1. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and ac generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.
- Note. Atque and ac generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: tālis ac, such as; aequē ac, equally as; aliter atque, otherwise than. See also 508, 5.
 - 2. Que is an enclitic, and ac is used only before consonants.
- 3. Etiam, quoque, adeō, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, ac, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which it connects: is quoque, he also. Etiam, also, further, even, often adds a new circumstance.
- 4. Copulatives are sometimes used as correlatives: et...et, que... que, et...que, que...et, que...atque, neque (nec)...neque (nec), neither...nor; neque (nec)...et (que), not...but (and); et...neque (nec), and not:

Et praeterita meminit et praesentibus potitur, he both remembers the past and possesses the present; C. Fin. 1, 19, 62. Mendācium neque dicēbat neque patī poterat, he neither uttered a falsehood, nor was he able to endure one.

Note 1. — Modo... modo, cum... tum, tum... tum, now... now, not only... but also, have the force of copulative correlatives. Non modo (solum or tantum)... sed (vērum) etiam, sometimes have the same meaning; see 656, 3.

- Note 2. A series may begin with **prīmum** or **prīmō**, may be continued by **deinde** followed by **tum**, **posteā**, **praetereā**, or some similar word, and may close with **dēnique** or **postrēmō**. Deinde may be repeated several times between **prīmum** and **dēnique** or **postrēmō**.
- 5. Between two words the copulative is generally expressed, though it is omitted between the names of consuls: L. Domitiō, Ap. Claudiō cōnsulibus, in the consulship of Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius.
- 6. Asyndeton. Between several words the copulative is in general either repeated or omitted altogether. A union of coördinate words without the connective is called Asyndeton:

Stultitia et temeritäs et iniüstitia, folly, rashness, and injustice; cf. C. Fin. 8, 11, 39. Cernimus, audīmus, gustāmus, olfacimus, tangimus, we see, hear, taste, smell, and touch; C. Div. 2, 3, 9.

Note.—Que may be used with the last member of a series even when the conjunction is omitted between the other words: aegritūdinēs, īrae libīdinēsque, griefs, hatreds, and passions.

658. Disjunctive Conjunctions (315, 2) meaning or, either . . . or, offer a choice between two objects:

Tibl ego, aut tū mihl servus es, I am servant to you or you to me; Pl. Bac. 162. Sive retrāctābis sīve properābis, whether you shall be reluctant or in haste.

- 1. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and is used when one alternative excludes the other: aut vērum aut falsum, either true or false,
- 2. Vel, or vel potius, or rather, and vel etiam, or even, are used to correct or strengthen a statement:

Post obitum vel potius excessum Romuli, after the death or rather departure of Romulus; C. R. P. 2, 12, 52.

659. Adversative Conjunctions (315, 3) denote Opposition or Contrast:

Cupiō mē esse clēmentem, sed mē inertiae condemnō, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction; C. C. 1. 2, 4. Quod autem laudābile est, honestum est, but what is laudable is honorable.

1. Sed and vērum generally mark a direct opposition; autem and vērō only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atquī often introduces an objection; cēterum means but still, as to the rest; tamen, yet.

¹ For examples, see C. Fam. 15, 14: Div. 2, 56.

² C. Inv. 2, 49, has a series of ten members in which **primum** introduces the first member, **postrēmō** the last, and deinde each of the other eight.

- 2. Autem and vērō are postpositive, i.e. they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.
 - 660. Illative Conjunctions (315, 4) denote Inference:

Nihil obstat; ergō omnia prōsperē, igitur beātē, there is, no opposition, therefore all things are moving prosperously, therefore happily; C. Tusc. 5, 18, 58.

- 1. Igitur is generally postpositive: hic igitur, this one therefore.
- 661. Causal Conjunctions (315, 5) denote Cause:

Nemo enim maeret suo incommodo, for no one mourns over his own misfortune; C. Tusc. 1, 13, 30.

1. Enim is postpositive; etenim and namque are stronger than enim and nam.

Note. — The use of Subordinate Conjunctions has been illustrated in the discussion of Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

RULES OF SYNTAX

662. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE—RULES OF AGREEMENT

- 1. The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative (387).
- 2. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (388).
- 3. A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case (393).
- 4. Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (394).
- 5. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person (396).

VOCATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE

- 6. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (402).
- 7. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (404).

- 8. Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing (410).
- 9. Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit two Accusatives, one of the Person and one of the Thing (411).
- 10. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (414).
- 11. Subject of Infinitive. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (415).
- 12. Accusative of Specification. In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application (416).
- 13. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (417).
- 14. The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with ad or in, but in the names of Towns by the Accusative alone (418).
- 15. The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (420).
- 16. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (421).

DATIVE

- 17. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (424).
- 18. Two Datives the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (433).
- 19. Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them (434).
- 20. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative (436).

GENITIVE

21. A noun used as an Attributive or Predicate of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (439).

- 22. Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning (450).
- 23. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting meminī, reminīscor, and oblīvīscor regularly take the Objective Genitive when used of Persons, but either the Genitive or the Accusative when used of Things (454).
- 24. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing, and Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, Acquitting, take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, Charge, etc. (456).
- 25. Misereor and miseresco take the Objective Genitive; miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, and taedet take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Object which produces the feeling (457).

ABLATIVE

I. Ablative Proper

- 26. The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition— \bar{a} , ab, d \bar{e} , or ex—when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with ab, d \bar{e} , dis, s \bar{e} , or ex (461).
- 27. The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town, or is used after a verb meaning to relieve, free, deprive, need, or be without (462).
- 28. The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition,—ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex (467).
- 29. Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative (471).

II. Instrumental Ablative

- 30. The Ablative of Association is used (473):
- (1) To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition cum.
- (2) To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.
- (3) To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.
- 31. The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used without a preposition (475).

- 32. The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (476).
- 33. Means. Special Uses. (1) The Ablative of Means is used with $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ tor, fruor, fungor, pottor, vescor, and their compounds (477).
- (2) The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling, and with adjectives of Fullness: abundō, redundō, adfluō, etc.; compleō, expleō, impleō, onerō, etc.; onustus, refertus, plēnus, etc.
- (3) The Ablative of Means is used with opus and ūsus, often in connection with the Dative of the person.
- 34. Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives (478).
- 35. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used (479):
 - (1) With Comparatives and Superlatives.
 - (2) With verbs and other words implying Comparison.
 - (3) To denote Intervals of Time or Space.
- 36. Ablative of Specification. A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application (480).

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

- 37. The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in, but in names of Towns by the Locative (483).
- 38. The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (486).
- 39. Ablative Absolute. A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance (489).
- 40. The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (490).

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

41. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (523).

HARK, LAT, GRAM. — 24

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

SYNTAX

42. Principal Tenses depend on Principal Tenses, and Historical on Historical (543).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

- 43. The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is non (552).
- 44. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is $n\bar{e}$ (558).
- 45. The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Willed. The negative is nē. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties (559):
- (1) The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense.
- (2) The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person, and generally best rendered by *let*; but see **560**.
- (3) The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions.
- (4) The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued, and that he desires to be directed.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

46. In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third (560).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

47. Substantive Clauses.—The Subjunctive, generally with ut or nē, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose. Thus (564):

- (1) In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs.
- (2) In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates.
- (3) In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns.
- 48. Final Clauses. The Subjunctive is used with ut, nē, quō, quō minus, quōminus, to denote the Purpose of the action (568).
- 49. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real (569).
- 50. Consecutive Clauses. The Potential Subjunctive is used with ut, or ut non, to denote the Result of the action (570).
- 51. Substantive Clauses. The Potential Subjunctive is often used with ut and ut non in Substantive Clauses as follows (571):
- (1) In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning it happens, it follows, etc., accidit, accēdit, ēvenit, fit, efficitur, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, etc.
 - (2) In Subject clauses with Predicate nouns and adjectives.
- (3) In Object clauses depending upon facio, efficio, etc., of the action of irrational forces.
 - (4) In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns.

CONDITIONAL, CONCESSIVE, AND CAUSAL CLAUSES

- 52. The Indicative in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Real (574).
- 53. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Possible (576).
- 54. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact (579).
- 55. Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by ac sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī, as if, than if, take the Subjunctive (584).
- 56. Etsi and etiam si, when they mean although, introduce Adversative clauses and take the Indicative, but when they mean

- even if, they introduce Conditional clauses, and accordingly take the same construction as si (585).
- 57. (1) Clauses introduced by quamquam and tametsi contain admitted facts, and accordingly take the Indicative (586).
- (2) Clauses introduced by licet, quam-vis, ut, or nē, are Concessive, and accordingly take the Concessive Subjunctive; see 559, 3.
- 58. The Jussive Subjunctive is used with dum, modo, modo ut, and dummodo, meaning if only, provided, in conditional clauses of desire (587).
- 59. Causal Clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quandō, generally take (588):
- (1) The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority.
- (2) The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority.

RELATIVE CLAUSES AND QUIN CLAUSES

- 60. Clauses introduced by the Relative qui, or by Relative Adverbs, ubi, unde, quo, etc., take (589):
- (1) The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause.
 - (2) The Subjunctive in all other cases.
- 61. (1) Quin in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences (594).
 - (2) Quin in Subordinate Clauses takes the Subjunctive.

CUM CLAUSES, TEMPORAL CLAUSES

- 62. In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive Clauses with cum take the Subjunctive (598).
- 63. Temporal Clauses introduced by cum, meaning when, while, after, take (600):
 - (1) The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses.
 - (2) The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses.

- 64. Temporal Clauses introduced by the particles postquam, posteā quam, after, prīdiē quam, postrīdiē quam, on the day before, on the day after; ubš, ut, simul, simul atque, when, as, as soon as, state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present (602).
- 65. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, meaning as long as, take the Indicative (603).
- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, meaning until, take:
- (1) The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact.
- (2) The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived.
- 66. (1) In Temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived (605).
 - (2) The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive.

INFINITIVE AND SUPINE

- 67. Infinitive. Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (607).
- 68. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose (633).
- 69. The Supine in $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ is generally used as an Ablative, sometimes perhaps as a Dative (635).

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

- 70. Principal Clauses. The Principal clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative (642).
- 71. Subordinate Clauses. The Subordinate clauses of the Direct discourse on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive (643).

ADVERBS

72. Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (654).

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES

663. The Latin allows great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE

General Rules

664. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sõl oriens et occidens diem noctemque conficit, the sun by its rising and setting makes day and night. Scipio Āfricānus Carthāginem Numantiamque dēlēvit, Scipio Africanus destroyed Carthage and Numantia; C. C. 4, 10, 21.

1. The Modifiers of the Subject either follow it or are grouped around it. Substantive modifiers generally follow it, while Adjective modifiers may stand either before or after it; see 671, 1-5:

Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, true friendships are enduring. Hominēs industriī in Āsiā negōtiantur, active men are engaged in business in Asia.

2. In the arrangement of the modifiers of the Predicate the place directly before the verb is generally occupied by the Direct object, or by an Adverb which directly qualifies the action:

Fortiter bellum gesserat, he had waged war valiantly; Flac. 39, 98. Rem püblicam fēlīcissimē gessērunt, they administered the republic most successfully; Caes. C. 7, 7.

3. In the arrangement of Objects the Indirect object generally stands before the Direct:

Dārēus Scythis bellum înferre dēcrēvit, Darius decided to make war upon the Scythians.

4. Expressions of Place, Time, or Means generally stand before the other modifiers of the verb, often even before the subject:

Athēnienses loco idoneo castra fecerunt, the Athenians pitched their camp in a suitable place. Proximo die Caesar e castris utrisque copias suas eduxit,

the next day Caesar led out his forces from both his camps; Caes. 1, 50. Marius commeatu navēs onerat, Marius loads his vessels with supplies.

- 665. Emphasis and the relative importance of different parts of the sentence often cause a departure from the Grammatical arrangement just described. Thus,
- 1. Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Catōnem quis nostrōrum ōrātōrum legit, who among our orators reads Cato? C. Brut. 17, 65. Numitōrī Remus dēditur, Remus is delivered to Numitor.

2. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nobis non satisfacit ipse Demosthenes, even Demosthenes does not satisfy us; cf. C. Or. 29, 104.

3. In any phrase within a sentence the emphatic word stands first:

Mihľ ūnī conservatae rei publicae gratulationem decrevistis, to me alone you have decreed a thanksgiving for having preserved the republic; C. C. 4, 10, 20.

4. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its limiting Genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by separation:

Obiūrgātiones non numquam incidunt necessāriae, sometimes necessary reproofs occur; C. Off. 1, 38, 136.

Note. — A word is sometimes made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound or periphrastic tense:

Consuetudo imitanda medicorum est, the custom of physicians should be imitated; C. Off. 1, 24, 83.

- 666. Two groups of words may be made prominent and emphatic either by Anaphora or by Chiasmus.
- 1. Anaphora. Here the order of words in the second group is identical with that in the first:

Mē cuncta Ītalia, mē ūniversa cīvitās consulem dēclārāvit, me all Italy, me the whole state proclaimed consul; C. Pis. 1, 3.

2. Chiasmus. — Here the order of words in the first group is reversed in the second:

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body; C. R. P. 6, 24. Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, enough eloquence, but little wisdom.

667. Kindred Words. — Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other.

Ad senem senex de senectute scripsi, I, an old man, wrote to an old man about old age; C. Am. 1.

- 668. A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed
 - 1. Generally before or after both:

Graecis et litteris et doctōribus, by means of Greek literature and Greek teachers; C. Tusc. 1, 1. Et belli et pācis artibus, by the arts both of war and of peace; L. 1, 21.

Note. — But a Genitive, or an adjective, following two nouns, more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Percunctātio ac dēnūntiātio bellī, the inquiry and the declaration of war.

2. Sometimes directly after the first, before the conjunction:

Honoris certamen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory; C. Am. 10.

- 669. Moreover, the context often has some share in determining the arrangement of words in the sentence. Thus,
- 1. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the preceding sentence generally stands at or near the beginning of its own sentence:

In his castris Albanus rex moritur, in this camp the Alban king dies.

Note. — In his castris refers back to castra in the preceding sentence.

2. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the following sentence stands at or near the end of its sentence:

Apud Helvētiōs longē nōbilissimus fuit Orgetorix, among the Helvetii by far the highest of the nobles was Orgetorix. Is coniūrātiōnem nōbilitātis fēcit, he formed a conspiracy of the nobles.

670. Euphony and Rhythm. — The best Latin writers in the arrangement of words regard sound as well as meaning. They aim at variety in the length, sound, and ending of successive words and pay special attention to the manner in which the sentence closes. A word of two or more syllables with a clear and full sound is generally selected for this place:

Pūblius Āfricānus, Carthāgine dēlētā, Siculōrum urbēs sīgnīs monumentīsque pulcherrimīs exōrnāvit, Publius Africanus, having destroyed Carthage, adorned the cities of the Sicilians with the most beautiful statues and monuments; C. Ver. 2, 2, 3.

Special Rules

671. The Substantive Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it, but Adjective Modifiers may stand either before or after it:

Pausaniās in aedem Minervae confūgit, Pausanias sted into the temple of Minerva; N. 4, 5, 2. Usus magister est optimus, experience is the best teacher. Tuscus ager Romāno adiacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman.

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, generally stand before the noun:

Catonis orationes, Cato's orations; Xenophontis libri, Xenophon's books.

2. In a few expressions, the Genitive has a definite position before its noun and in a few others a definite position after it:

Magister equitum, the master of the horse; tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the people; tribūnus mīlitum, tribune of the soldiers, etc.; senātūs auctoritās, the authority of the senate: senātūs consultum, a decree of the senate.

3. In certain expressions the Adjective regularly follows:

Cīvis Rōmānus, a Roman citizen; populus Rōmānus, the Roman people; pontifex māximus, the chief priest; dī immortālēs, the immortal gods; genus hūmānum, the human race; iūs cīvīle, civil law, etc.

4. When a noun is modified by an Adjective and a Genitive, the usual order is Adjective — Genitive — Noun:

Omnës Graeciae civitatës, all the states of Greece.

5. An Adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition and sometimes by two or more words:

Māgnō cum periculō, with great peril; māxima post hominum memoriam classis, the largest fleet in the memory of man; N. 2, 5.

672. Modifiers of Adjectives. — Adverbial modifiers generally stand before adjectives while Objective modifiers more commonly follow them:

Exspectătio valde măgna, a very great expectation. Appetentes gloriae atque avidi laudis, eager for glory and desirous of praise.

673. The Modifiers of verbs generally stand before them (664):

Mors propter brevitätem vitae numquam longe abest, death is never far distant in consequence of the shortness of life; cf. C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91.

Note. — When the verb stands at the beginning of the sentence the modifiers of course follow it and may be separated from it.

Silent leges inter arma, laws are silent in war: C. Mil. 4, 10.

674. Modifiers of adverbs generally stand before them, but a Dative depending on an adverb usually follows it:

Illud valde graviter tulerunt, they bore this with great displeasure. Congruenter naturae vivit, he lives in harmony with nature.

675. Pronouns. — Possessives generally follow the nouns to which they belong, but other pronominal adjectives generally precede their nouns, Demonstratives and Interrogatives regularly:

Copias suas divisit, he divided his forces. Custos huius urbis, the guardian of this city. In qua urbe vivimus, in what sort of a city are we living?

- 1. Ille in the sense of well-known usually follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective: Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea, but Māgnus ille Alexander, that famous Alexander the Great.
- 2. Pronouns are often grouped together, especially quisque with suus or suī:

Per se quisque sibl carus est, every one is by his own nature dear to him-self; C. Am. 21, 80.

676. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:

Tauro tenus, as far as Taurus. Narbonem versus, towards Narbo.

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Italiam contră, over against Italy; quibus de, in regard to which; hunc post, after him. See also 175, 7; 182, 2.

2. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case:

Ad eārum rērum facultātem, to a supply of those things. Ad bene beātēque vivendum, for living well and happily. Per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, I implore you by these tears; V. 4, 314.

677. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses: but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērō, and generally igitur, follow some other word:

Si haec civitās est, if this is a state. In qui audiunt, those who hear. Ipse autem omnia vidēbat, but he himself saw everything. See also 659, 2, and 660, 1.

1. Conjunctions and relatives may follow emphatic words:

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Troiae qui primus ab oris venit, who came first from the shores of Troy; V. 1, 1.

2. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In foroque, and in the forum. Inter nosque, and among us.

678. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Homo non probatissimus, a man by no means the most approved. Non fuit Juppiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Pecunia soluta non est, the money has not been paid.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, werb, or noun, is made prominent:

Nulla vidēbātur aptior persona, there seemed to be no more fitting character. Nihil est melius, nothing is better.

679. Inquam, sometimes ātō, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted:

Nihil habeo, inquit, quod accusem senectutem, I have nothing, said he, of which to accuse old age; C. Sen. 5, 18.

680. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Vos, Quirītēs, in vestra tēcta discēdite, you, Romans, retire to your homes.

ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES

681. Clauses connected by coordinate conjunctions (315, 1) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Gyges à nullo vidébatur, ipse autem omnia vidébat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things.

682. A clause used as the Subject of a compound sentence (386, 2) generally stands at the Beginning of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the End:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Exitus fuit orationis, sibl nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men.

- 1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 664.
- 2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect on the arrangement of clauses as on the arrangement of words; see 665, 670.
- 683. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of compound sentences admit three different arrangements.
- 1. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Ariovistus, ex equis ut colloquerentur, postulăvit, Ariovistus demanded that they should converse on horseback; Caes. 1, 48. Libenter hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt, men willingly believe that which they wish; Caes. 3, 18, 6.

2. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is.

Note. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence Causal, Temporal, Conditional, and Concessive clauses often precede the principal clause, and in sentences composed of correlative clauses with is . . . quī, tālis . . . quālis, tantus . . . quantus, tum . . . cum, ita . . . ut, etc., the relative member, i.e. the clause with quī, quālis, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

3. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Enititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom.

Note. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of Purpose and Result generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

684. When either the subject or the object is the same both in the Principal and in the Subordinate clause, it usually stands at or near the beginning of the sentence and is followed by the subordinate clause:

Hostes ubi primum nostros equites conspexerunt, celeriter nostros perturbaverunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout; Caes. 4, 12. Illa ut potui tuli, those things I endured as (well as) I could.

1. When the object of the principal clause is the same as the subject of the subordinate clause, it usually stands at the beginning of the sentence:

Vos moneo ut forti animo sitis, I counsel you to be of a courageous spirit.

685. Latin Periods. — A carefully elaborated Latin sentence consisting of one or more subordinate clauses inserted in the principal clause, or placed before it, and so combined with it and with each other as to make one complete organic whole, is a Latin Period:

Ut quod turpe est, id quamvis occultetur, tamen honestum fieri nullo modo potest; sic quod honestum non est, id utile ut sit effici non potest, as that which is base, although it may be concealed, can in no way be made honorable, so that which is not honorable can not by any possibility be made useful; C. Off. 3, 19, 78.

Ut saepe homines aegrī morbo gravī, cum aestū febrīque iactantur, sī aquam gelidam bibērunt, prīmo relevārī videntur, deinde multo gravius vehementiusque adflictantur, sīc hīc morbus quī est in rē pūblicā, relevātus istius poenā, vehementius vīvīs reliquīs ingravēscet, as men ill with a severe disease if they take cold water when they are tossed with heat and fever, often seem at first to be relieved but afterwards are much more grievously and violently distressed, so this disease which is in the republic, though alleviated by the punishment of this one, will gain greater strength while the rest are alive; C. C. 1, 13, 31.

Note 1. — The examples under 683, 1, and the first example under 684, are also short and simple illustrations of the periodic structure, so popular with Latin writers.

Note 2. — For further illustration of the Latin Period, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, 12, sed quoniam . . . prōvidēre; the Oration for the Poet Archias, 1, quod sī haec . . . dēbēmus; also Livy, 1, 6, Numitor inter prīmum tumultum . . . ostendit.

PART V. — PROSODY

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686. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

QUANTITY

- 687. A syllable is long if it contains a diphthong or a long vowel, or is the result of contraction: haec, dīcō, nīl.
 - 1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacütus.

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- 688. A syllable is long if its vowel is followed in the same word by a double consonant, or any two consonants except a mute and a liquid 1: dux, servus, sunt.
- 1. A syllable is also long before two consonants, even if only one of them belongs to that word; and in the thesis (725) of a foot it is generally long before a double consonant or two single consonants at the beginning of the following word.
 - Note 1. The aspirate h never affects the quantity of a syllable.
- NOTE 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in s often remains short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes, also, short final syllables ending in other consonants remain short in that situation.
- 2. A syllable is long before **i** consonant, except in the compounds of **iugum**. Even in the compounds of **iaciō** with monosyllabic prepositions the first syllable is long, although **i** consonant is suppressed in writing; abiciō, adiciō.
- 3. In the early poets many syllables, long by position in the Augustan poets, are sometimes short, as the first syllable of ecce, ille, immō, nempe, omnis, quippe.
- Note. In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnus, Tecmēssa.
- 689. A syllable is short if its vowel is followed in the same word by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate h: dies, viae, nihil. But a few exceptions occur.
- 1. For ā before another vowel, see 79, 3, and note proper names in āius: aulāī, Gāius.
- 2. For ē or ě before a vowel, see 134: diēī, fidēī, rěī, spěī, and note ēheu and Rhēa.
- 3. For ī or ǐ before a vowel, see 93, 4, 179, and 296: flam, flēbam, but fierī; illīus, totīus, but alterīus. Note also dīus, Dĭāna.
- Note. In Greek words, vowels are often long before vowels because long in the original: Mēdēa, āēr, Aenēās, Trões.
- 690. A syllable is common in quantity if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: agrī, patris.

¹ Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by position if the vowel is short. For the hidden quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 749.

- 1. A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.
- 2. In Plautus and Terence a syllable, not in a compound, is short before a mute and a liquid if its vowel is short.

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES

- 691. Monosyllables are generally long: dā, sī, dō, dōs, pēs, sīs, bōs, pār, sōl. But note the following exceptions:
 - 1. Enclitics: que, ve, ne, ce, te, pse, pte.
- 2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ab, ad, fel, sum, et; except sal, sol.
- 3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os, per, ter, quis, vir, vas, and hic and hoc in the Nominative and Accusative.
 - 692. In words of more than one syllable
- 1. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short: audī, servō, frūctū; via, mare, misy.
- 2. Final syllables in c are long; in d, 1, m, n, r, t, short: illūc; illud, consul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.
- Note. Donec and lien are exceptions; also final syllables in $\bf n$ and $\bf r$ in many Greek words.
- 3. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short: amās, nūbēs, servos; avis, bonus, chlamys.
- Note 1. Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings **ā**, **ē**, **ā**l, **ā**r, **ō**r, **Is**, **ūs**, **ā**t, **ē**t, **ī**t, often stand in place of the later endings **a**, **e**, **a**l, **a**r, **o**r, **is**, **us**, **at**, **e**t, **i**t. Some of these are retained by Terence, and occasionally by the Augustan poets.
- Note 2. Plautus and Terence often shorten final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, dedi, domi, viro, pedes.
- Note 3. In Plantus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not necessarily affect the quantity of the syllable: Il in ille, mm in immō.
- 693. I final, usually long, is short in nisi, quasi; common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ubi; and short or common in a few Greek words.
- 694. O final, usually long, is short in duo, ego, eho, cedo, cito, Ilico, modo and its compounds, and sometimes in nouns of the Third Declension and in verbs, though rarely in the best poets.

- 695. A final, usually short, is long
- 1. In the Ablative: mēnsā, bonā, illā.
- 2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in as: Aenea, Palla.
- 3. In certain numerals: trigintă, quadrăgintă, etc.
- 4. In verbs and particles: amā, cūrā; circā, iuxtā, anteā, frūstrā; except ita, quia, hēia, and puta used adverbially.
 - 696. E final, usually short, is long
- 1. In the First and Fifth Declensions, and in Greek plurals of the Third Declension: epitomē; diē; tempē. Hence in hodiē, prīdiē, postrīdiē, quārē.
- 2. In the singular Imperative Active of the Second Conjugation: monē, docē. But e is sometimes short in cavě, vidě, etc., and in the comic poets many dissyllabic Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as habe, iube, mane, move, tace, tene, etc.
- 3. In ferë, fermë, čhë, and in adverbs from adjectives of the Second Declension: doctë, rëctë; except bene, male, and sometimes in the early poets māxumē, probē, temerē.
- 697. As final, usually long, is short in a few forms, chiefly Greek: anas, Arcas, lampas; Arcadas, hērōas.
 - 698. Es final, usually long, is short
- 1. In the Nominative singular of the Third Declension with short increment (702) in the Genitive: mīles, sometimes mīlēs in Plautus, obses, interpres; except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs, and compounds of pēs, as bipēs.
 - 2. In penes and the compounds of es, as ades, potes.
 - 3. In a few Greek forms: Arcades, Troades, Hippomanes.
- 699. Os final, usually long, is short in compos, impos, exos, and a few Greek words: Dēlos, melos.
 - 700. Is final, usually short, is long
 - In plural cases: mēnsīs, vōbīs. Hence forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.
- 2. In Nominatives of the Third Declension, increasing long in the Genitive: Ouirīs, Salamīs.
- 3. In the singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation: audīs.
 - 4. In the singular Present Subjunctive Active: possis, velis, nolis.
- 5. Sometimes in the singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīs, docuerīs.
 - 6. In early Latin sometimes in pulvis, cinis, and sanguis.
 - Note. Māvīs, quīvīs, and utervīs retain the quantity of vīs.

701. Us final, usually short, is long (1) in Nominatives of the Third Declension increasing long in the Genitive: virtūs, tellūs, but palus occurs in Horace; (2) in the Fourth Declension, in the Genitive singular, and in the plural: frūctūs; and (3) generally in Greek words ending long in the original: Panthūs, tripūs.

QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS

- 702. A word is said to increase in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative singular, and to have as many increments of declension as it has additional syllables: sermō, sermōnis, sermōnibus.¹
- 703. A verb is said to increase in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many increments of conjugation as it has additional syllables: amās, amātis, amābātis.²
- 704. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the First increment, and those following this are called successively the Second, Third, and Fourth increments.

Increments of Declension

705. In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e, i, u, and y, short: 4 aetās, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerōrum; mīles, mīlitis; fulgur, fulguris; chlamys, chlamydis.

Note. — The quantity in the increments of Greek nouns is best learned from the dictionary. It is usually that of the original Greek.

706. A, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Caesaris; (2) of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis; and (3) of lar, nectar, par; mas, vas; sal, fax, and a few other words.

¹ Sermonis, having one syllable more than sermo, has one increment, while sermonibus has two increments.

² Amātis has one increment, amābātis two.

⁸ In ser-mon-i-bus, the first increment is mon, the second i; and in mon-u-e-rā-mus, the first is u, the second e, the third rā.

⁴ Y occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in yn. HARK, LAT, GRAM.—25

- 707. O, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of neuters in the Third Declension: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis; (2) of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: (ops), opis; and (3) of arbor, bos, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor.
- 708. E, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of the Fifth Declension: dieī, dierum, rebus; but note fidēī, reī, spēī; and (2) of ver, heres, locuples, merces, quies, inquies, requies, plebs, lex, rex.
- 709. I, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of words in īx: rādīx, rādīcis; and (2) of dīs, līs, vīs, Ouirīs, Samnīs.
- 710. U, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of nouns in ūs: iūs, iūris; salūs, salūtis; palūs, palūdis; and (2) of fūr, (frūx), frūgis, lūx.

Increments of Conjugation

- 711. In the Increments of Conjugation (703) a, e, and o are long; i and u short: amāmus, amēmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus.
- 1. A, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of the verb dō, dare: dabam, circumdabam.
- 2. E, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is generally short before r: amāveram, amāverō; regere, regeris; see also 218-221.
- 3. I, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is generally long, except before a vowel, in the first increment of the Fourth Conjugation and of those verbs of the Third Conjugation which follow the analogy of the fourth: audīre, audīvī, audītum; cupīvī, cupīverat, cupītus.
- 4. Note also (1) sīmus, sītis; velīmus, velītis; nōlīte, nōlītō, nōlītōtōte; (2) the different persons of ībam, ībō, from eō; and (3) the endings rīmus and rītis of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīmus, amāverītis.
- 5. **U**, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the participial system: volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.

QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS

- 712. Note the quantity of the following derivative endings:
- 1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum:

flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

ēdō, īdō, tūdō; āgō, īgō, ūgō:
 dulcēdō, cupīdō, sōlitūdō; vorāgō, orīgō, aerūgō.

v

. 1

- 3. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis:
- querēla, ovile; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.
- 4. ānus, ēnus, īnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna:

urbānus, egēnus, marīnus, patronus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annona, lacūna.

5. āris, ōsus; āvus, īvus, tīvus:

salūtāris, animosus; octāvus, aestīvus, tempestīvus.

6. ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus.

ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus.

7. ēnī, īnī, ōnī — in Distributives:

septēnī, quīnī, octōnī.

8. adēs, iadēs, idēs — in Patronymics:

Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs.

9. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum—in Diminutives:

filiolus, filiola, ātriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; flōsculus, particula, mūnusculum.

QUANTITY OF STEM SYLLABLES

- 713. All simple verbs in iō of the Third Conjugation have the stem syllable 1 short: capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiō.
- 714. Most verbs which form the Perfect in uī, except inceptives, have the stem syllable short: domō, secō, habeō, moneō, alō, colō.
- 715. Dissyllabic Perfects, Supines, and Perfect Participles generally have the first syllable long, unless short by position: iuvō, iūvī, iūtum; foveō, fōvī, fōtum.
- 1. Eight-l'erfects and ten Supines or Perfect Participles have the first syllable short:

Bibī, dedī, fidī, liquī,² scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.

716. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects generally have the first two syllables short unless the second is long by position: cadō, cecidī; canō, cecinī; currō, cucurrī; but note caedō, cecīdī.

¹ That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

² Liqui from liqueo: linquo has liqui.

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- 717. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem syllables unchanged unless affected by position: avis, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levissimus.
- 718. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem syllables of their primitives: bonus, bonitās; animus, animōsus; cīvis, cīvicus.
- 1. But remember that many roots have a strong form and a weak form (320, 1):

dicō	dīcō	odium	ōdī
dux, ducis	dūcō	regō	rēx, rēgis
fidēs	fīdō	sedeō	sēdēs
$hom\bar{o}$	hūmānus	tegō	tēgula
legō	lēx, lēgis	vocō	vox, vocis

- 719. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements; ante-ferō, dē-dūcō, prō-dūcō; but note dēierō (dē, iūrō).
 - 1. Pro is generally shortened before f followed by a vowel:

Profānus, profarī, proficiscor, profiteor, profugiō, profugus, profundus; but note prōferō and prōficiō.

Note. — Prō is shortened in procella, procul, and in a few other words.

- 2. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with facio or fio, e is generally short: calefacio, calefio, labefacio, patefacio.
- 3. I is usually long in the first part of the compounds of dies: meridies, pridie. postrīdie, cottīdie, trīduum.
 - 4. Hodiē, quasi, quoque, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

VERSIFICATION

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT

720. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.¹

¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of Accented and Unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of Long and Short syllables. The rhythmic accent, or ictus (724), in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

	not', in but' an	mourn'-ful emp'-ty	num'-bers, dream'.
	tur' di-		ē′.
At' fi-	dēs' et	in'-ge-	l nī'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent, or ictus, falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables.

- 1. In quantity or time the unit of measure, called a Time or Mora, is a short syllable indicated either by a curve o or by an eighth note in music, 1. A long syllable has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign _, or by a quarter note in music, _.
- 2. Triseme. A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of three short syllables, indicated by the sign _, or _!.
- 3. Tetraseme. A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of four short syllables, indicated by ___, or ___.
- 4. A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have approximately the value of a short syllable, and is marked by the sign >; and two short syllables sometimes seem to have approximately the value of one, and are marked ... Syllables thus used are said to have Irrational time.
- 5. The final syllable of a verse, often called syllaba anceps (doubtful syllable), may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.
- 1

• ,,	• • •	-	-	•
721. The poets are	e feet of most freque	ent occurrenc	e in the	best Latin
	1. FEET OF FOUR T	mes or Four	Morae	•
Dactyl	one long and two short	∪ ∪	122	carmina
Spondee	two long syllables		ل ل	lēgēs
	2. FEET OF THREE T	mes or Three	MORAE	
Trochee 1	one long and one short		12	lēgis
Iambus	one short and one long	U _	2	parēns
Tribrach	three short syllables	$\circ \circ \circ$	ととと	dominus
Note 1. -	-To these may be added	the following:		
Anapaest	∪∪_ bonitās	Ditrochee		cīvitātis
Proceleusma	tic 🗸 🗸 🔾 🔾 calefacit	Greater Ionic		sententia
Bacchius	∪ dolōrēs	Lesser Ionic	$\cup \cup$	adulēscēns
Cretic	$_$ \cup $_$ mīlitēs	Choriambus		impatiēns 2
Diiambus	∪ _ ∪ _ amoenitās	1		
Note 2. -	- A Dipody is a group	of two feet; a	Tripody,	of three; a

Tetrapody, of four; etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i.e. a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half; etc.

¹ Sometimes called Choree.

² Most feet of four syllables are only compounds of dissyllabic feet. Thus the Diiambus is a double Iambus; the Ditrochee, a double Trochee; the Choriambus, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

- 722. Metrical Equivalents. A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.
- Note. Thus the dactyl becomes a spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the spondee becomes a dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the dactyl, the spondee, and the anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the iambus, the trochee, and the tribrach are metrical equivalents.
- 723. In certain kinds of verse admitting irrational time (720, 4), spondees, dactyls, and anapaests are shortened so that they have approximately the time of a trochee or of an iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.
- 1. A spondee used for a trochee is called an Irrational Trochee, and is marked >.
- 2. A spondee used for an iambus is called an Irrational Iambus, and is marked >-.
- 3. A dactyl used for a trochee is called a Cyclic Dactyl, and is marked \sim \circ or \sim \sim .
- 4. An anapaest used for an iambus is called a Cyclic Anapaest, and is marked $\circ \circ$ or $\circ \circ$.
- 724. Ictus, or Rhythmic Accent. As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables have a special prominence called Rhythmic Accent, or Ictus.
- 1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.
 - 2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.
- Note 1.—Thus the spondee, when used for the dactyl, takes the ictus of the dactyl, i.e. on the first syllable; but when used for the anapaest, it takes the ictus of the anapaest, i.e. on the last syllable.
- Note 2. When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of a long syllable in the thesis, the ictus is marked upon the first of these syllables. Thus a tribrach used for an iambus is marked $\bigcup \bigcirc \bigcup$.
- 725. Thesis and Arsis. In every foot the syllable which has the ictus is called the Thesis (putting down), and the rest of the foot is called the Arsis (raising).¹

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms &pais and $\theta \&pais$ of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the

- 726. Rhythmic Series.—A group of feet forming a single rhythmic unit by the predominance of one ictus over the rest is called a Rhythmic Series, or Colon.
- 1. A Rhythmic Series may consist of two, three, four, five, or six feet, but never of more than six.
- 727. Verses. A verse consists of a single rhythmic series, or of a group of two or three series so united as to form one distinct and separate whole, usually written as a single line of poetry. It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.
- Note 1. Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot, because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.
- NOTE 2.—A verse consisting of a single rhythmic series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.
 - Note 3. Two verses sometime unite and form a compound verse (746).
- 728. Caesura or Caesural Pause. Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which separates these parts is called
 - 1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot (736).
 - 2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot (736, 2 and 3).
- Note 1. Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diaeresis.
- Note 2.—The term caesura is often made to include both the Caesura proper and the Diaeresis. The chief pause in the line is often termed the Principal Caesura or simply the Caesura.
- 729. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus
- 1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).

Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. But most scholars at present deem it advisable to restore the terms to their original meaning, though some still prefer to use them in the sense in which the Roman grammarians employed them.

¹ Caesūra (from caedō, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

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- 2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).
- Note 1.—A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic; with a Trochee, Trochaic; with an Iambus, Iambic; etc.
- Note 2. A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.
- NOTE 3.—A verse which closes with a Complete measure is called Acatalectic; with an Incomplete measure, Catalectic; with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.
- Note 4. The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.
- Note 5. A Catalectic verse is said to be Catalectic in syllabam, in disyllabum, in trisyllabum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.
- Note 6. Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus, Hexameter (verse of six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (verse of six feet), the lambic Trimeter Acatalectic.
- 3. In reading catalectic verses, a pause is introduced in place of the lacking syllable or syllables.
- 4. A Pause or Rest equal to a short syllable is marked \wedge ; a Pause equal to a long syllable is marked $\overline{\wedge}$.
- 730. Verses and stanzas are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets. Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphic, from Sapphō; Glyconic from Glycōn, etc.
- Note. Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they are applied: as Heroic, applied to heroic subjects; Paroemiac, to proverbs, etc.
- 731. A Stanza or Strophe is a combination of two or more verses into one metrical whole; see 747, 1, 2, etc.
- Note. A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetrastich.
- 732. Rhythmical Reading.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.
- 733. Figures of Prosody. The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.

1. Elision. — A final vowel, a final diphthoug, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided 1 before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Mönstrum horrendum införme ingens. Verg.

- Note 1. Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes dropped before a consonant: Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās? Verg.
- Note 2. In the early poets, final s before a consonant is often so far suppressed that it fails to make position with the following consonant: ex omnibus rebus.
- Note 3.—The elision of a final **m** with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Ecthlipsis or Synaloepha.
- Note 4. The elision of a final vowel or diphthong is sometimes called Synaloepha, or, if at the end of a line, Synapheia.
- 2. Hiatus. A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel, especially in the thesis of a foot. It is regularly retained in the interjections ō, heu, and prō.
- Note. In the arsis, and in early Latin even in the thesis, a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg. Aen. 3, 211; 6, 507.
- 3. Synizesis. Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one: deinde, iidem, iisdem.
- Note 1. In the different parts of dēsum, ee is generally pronounced as one syllable: dēesse, dēest, dēerat, etc.; so ei in the verb anteeō: anteīre. anteīrem.
- Note 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w. Thus ariete becomes aryete; tenues becomes tenwes.
 - Note 3. In Plautus and Terence, Synizesis is used with great freedom.
- Note 4. The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Synaeresis.
- 4. Dialysis. In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes kept distinct: aurāī for aurae, soluendus for solvendus.
- Note 1. Dialysis properly means the Resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by dialysis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.
 - Note 2. Dialysis is sometimes called Diaeresis.

¹ That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:

[&]quot;The eternal years of God are hers."

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- 5. Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the thesis of a foot: Prīamidēs for Priamidēs.
- 6. Systole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short: tulerunt for tulerunt.
- 7. Syncope. An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 720, 3.

Note. — In reading syncopated verses, the long syllable must of course be allowed to occupy the time of an entire foot.

VARIETIES OF VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

- 734. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.
- 735. The Dactylic Hexameter¹ consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (720, 5).² The scheme is.³

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg. Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | iae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg. Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna iu- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg. Illī ɔ̄ in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracchia | tollunt. Verg. 6

⁴ Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:

The notation means that, instead of the original measure of the equivalent may be used.

¹ This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman meters. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Vergil and Ovid.

² The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. Some authorities, however, treat the verse as Catalectic, and mark the last foot $\angle \cup \wedge$.

⁵ The final I of illI is elided; see **733**, 1.

⁶ With these lines of Vergil compare the following **Hexameters from the Evan**geline of Longfellow:

- 1. The scheme of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
- 2. Effect of Dactyls. Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
- 3. Spondaic Line. The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Căra de- | um subo- | les mag- | num Iovis | incre- | mentum. Verg.

Note. — In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in incrementum above.

736. Caesura, or Caesural Pause. — The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the thesis or in the arsis of the third foot²:

Armā- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. Verg. Īnfan- | dum, rē- | gīna, || iu- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.

Note. — In the first line the caesural pause, marked ||, is after tendunt, after the thesis of the third foot; and in the second line, after rēgīna, in the arsis of the third foot. A caesura after the thesis of a foot is termed a Masculine caesura, while a caesura in the middle of the arsis is termed a Feminine caesura.

1. The Caesural Pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; | vēr | illud e- | rat, | vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. Bucolic Diaeresis. — A pause called the Bucolic Diaeresis, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?

¹ A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.

² That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense.

³ The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong or the Syllabic Caesura; the Feminine, the Weak or the Trochaic Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the thesis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral; after the thesis of the third, Penthemimeral; after the thesis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.

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Ingen- | tem cae- | lo soni- | tum dedit; || inde se- | cūtus. Verg

- Note. The Bucolic Diaeresis, or Caesura, though often employed by Juvenal, was in general avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.
- 3. A diaeresis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quis furit; | omnēs | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō, || Trō- | iae qui | primus ab | ōris. Verg.

- Note. Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these that after cano, in the third foot has the caesural pause.
- 5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Romae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

- Note 1.— The Penthemimeral caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as in 4 above.
- Note 2.—A happy effect is often produced by combining the Hephthemimeral caesura with the Trihemimeral:

Inde to- | rō || pater | Aenē- | ās || sīc | ŏrsus ab | altō. Verg.

- 737. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables, especially in the third foot, but in the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 735.
- 738. The last word of the hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable.
- Note 1. Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cū- | rae, || tur- | bātaque | fūnere | mēns est. Verg.

Note 2.—In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (729, note 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final em or um before the initial vowel of the next line; see Aen. 1, 332; Geor. 1, 295.

Other Dactylic Verses

739. Dactylic Pentameter. — The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two Dactylic Trimeters — the first syncopated or catalectic, the second catalectic — separated by a diaeresis. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

$$\angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \land \parallel \angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \land \land \circ$$
 or $\angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \bigcirc \bigcirc | \angle \bigcirc \land \circ$ Admoni-| tū coe-| pī || fortior | esse tu-| ō. ovid.

1. Elegiac Distich. — The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise- | pulta vi- | rum || cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs Ossa, ru- | īnō- | sās || occulit | herba do- | mūs. Ovid.

Note. — Elegiac composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of meter, and the sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid and Tibullus furnish us the best specimens of this style of composition.

Note. — In compound verses, as in the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other meters has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 745, 10.

3. The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic, also known as the Lesser Archilochian, is identical with the second half of the dactylic pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

² In musical characters:

Thus in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure; see 729, 3.

¹ The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyls or Spondees, the third a Spondee, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

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Trochaic Verse

740. The Trochaic Dipody, the unit of measure in trochaic verse, consists of two trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (720, 4), i.e. it sometimes has the form of a Spondee with the time of a Trochee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second:

Note 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents a Tribrach $\circlearrowleft \cup \cup$ may take the place of the Trochee $\preceq \cup$, and an apparent Anapaest $\circlearrowleft \cup >$ the place of the irrational Trochee $\preceq >$.¹ In proper names a cyclic Dactyl $\backsim \cup$ or $\preceq \cup$ (723, 3) may occur in either foot.

Note 2.— In Dactylic verse the unit of measure is a foot, but in Trochaic, lambic, and Anapaestic verses it is a Dipody, or pair of feet.

Note 3.—A syllable called Anacrusis (upward beat) is sometimes prefixed to a trochaic verse. It is separated from the following measure by the mark :.

741. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scheme:

$$\angle \cup _ \cup | \angle \cup \supseteq$$

Aula dīvi- | tem manet. Hor.

Note. — A Trochaic Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 745, 10.

1. The Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcaic stanza is a Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis:

2. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic, or Septenarius, consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot, and in the best poets the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

Crás amet qui | númquam amāvit || quíque amāvit | crás amet. Pervig. Ven.

¹ Thus in the second foot of a trochaic dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time, approximately, as the Trochee or the Tribrach.

² Only the leading ictus of each dipody is here marked.

- Note 1. This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diaeresis.¹
- Note 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great license in the use of feet. In Plautus and Terence the tribrach \circlearrowleft is admitted in any foot except the last, and the irrational trochee \preceq , cyclic dactyl \circlearrowleft or \preceq , and the apparent anapaest \circlearrowleft in any foot except the last two. Plautus admits the proceleusmatic \circlearrowleft in the first foot. Later writers, as Varro, Seneca, and the author of Pervigilium Veneris, conform much more strictly to the normal scheme.
- 3. The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic, or Octonarius, consists of four complete Trochaic Dipódies, with a diaeresis at the end of the second dipody:

$$\angle \cup$$
 $\supseteq \Diamond \mid \angle \cup$ $\supseteq \Diamond \mid \angle \cup$ $\supseteq \Diamond \mid \angle \cup$ $\supseteq \bigcup$ Ipse summis | saxis fixus || asperis \hat{e} - | viscerātus. Enn.

Note. — This verse in Latin is used chiefly in the early comedy, where it admits great license in the use of feet. In Plautus and Terence the tribrach, irrational trochee, cyclic dactyl, and apparent anapaest may occur in any foot except the last, and any of them, except the cyclic dactyl, may occur in the last foot.

Iambic Verse

742. The lambic Dipody, the measure of lambic verse, consists of two iambi, the first of which has a heavier ictus than the second and is sometimes irrational (720, 4):

743. 1. The Iambic Trimeter, also called Senarius, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth: $\geq \angle \cup - | \geq \angle \cup | \geq \angle \cup |^2$

Quid obserā- | tīs || auribus | fundis precēs? Hor. Hās inter epu- | lās || ut iuvat | pāstās ovēs. Hor.

We' can make our | lives' sublime, And', departing, | leave' behind us Foot'prints on the | sands' of time.

When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.

¹ Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines:

Lives' of great men | all' remind us

² This same scheme, divided thus, ≳ : ∠ ∪ _ ≳ | ∠ ∪ _ ≳ | ∠ ∪ _ ∧, represents Trochaic Trimeter Catalectic with Anacrusis. Thus all iambic verses may be treated as trochaic verses with Anacrusis.

Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza:

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Note 1.— In Proper Names a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.

Note 2.—In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spondee; their equivalents, the tribrach, the dactyl, and the anapaest, are used very sparingly.

Note 3.—In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the tribrach $\cup \emptyset \cup$, irrational iambus $> \angle$, apparent dactyl $> \emptyset \cup$, cyclic anapaest $\cup \bigcup \emptyset$ or $\cup \bigcup \angle$, and proceleusmatic $\cup \bigcup \emptyset \cup$ are admitted in any foot except the last.

Note 4. — The Choliambus is a variety of Iambic Trimeter with a Trochee in the sixth foot 1:

Miser Catul- | le desinas | ineptire. Catul.

2. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic occurs in Horace with the following scheme:

Vocātus at- | que non vocā- | tus audit. Hor.

NOTE. — The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

3. The Iambic Dimeter consists of two Iambic Dipodies:

Queruntur in | silvīs avēs. Hor. Ast ego vicis- | sim rīserō. Hor.

Note 1. — Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

Note 2. — The lambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

4. The Iambic Tetrameter consists of four Iambic Dipodies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellex- | i modo senis || sententiam | de nuptiis. Ter.

Note 1. — The lambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:

Quot commodas | res attuli? || quot autem ade- | mi curas. Ter.

Note 2. — Plautus and Terence admit the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter (743, note 3).

¹ Choliambus, or Scazon, means lame or limping Iambus, and is so called from its limping movement. It is also explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (733, 7) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus:

Ionic Verse

744. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

Neque pügnő | neque segni | pede victus; Catus idem | per apertum; Hor.

Note 1. — In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position. Thus us in victus is long before c in catus.

Note 2. — The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadean Verse, occurs chiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:

Hās cum gemi- | nā compede | dēdicat ca- | tēnās. Mart.

Logacedic Verse

- 745. Logacedic Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee $\angle >$, the Cyclic Dactyl $\angle \cup \cup$ or $\angle \cup \cup$, and the Syncopated Trochee \sqcup (733, 7) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.² The following varieties of Logacedic verses appear in Horace:
 - 1. The Adonic:

Montis i- | māgō. Hor

Note. — Some scholars regard the Adonic as a tripody with the following scheme: $\checkmark \lor \lor \lor \lor \lor \lor \checkmark \land \land$

2. The Aristophanic or the First Pherecratic 8:

8 Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic $\angle \cup \cup \angle | \cup \angle | \cup \wedge$ First Glyconic $\angle \cup \cup \angle | \cup \angle | \cup \triangle$ Asclepiadean $\angle > | \angle \cup \cup \angle | \angle \cup \cup \angle | \cup \triangle$

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¹ From λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.

² The free use of long syllables in the Arsis causes the poetical ictus on the Thesis to appear less prominent

Note 1. — The scheme of the Aristophanic is sometimes written thus: $\preceq \cup \cup | \bot \cup | \bot | \bot \wedge \cdot$

Note 2.—Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecratic, according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be Acatalectic or Catalectic:

In Logacedic verse the term Basis or Base, marked \times , is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot __ > is the base.

3. The Second Glyconic 1 Catalectic:

$$\angle > | \angle \cup | \angle \cup | \underline{\lor} \land \text{ or } | N$$
 Donec | gratus e- | ram ti- | bl. Hor.

Note 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic, according as its dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

NOTE 2. — The Second Glyconic sometimes has Syncope in the third foot.

4. The Lesser Asclepiadean 1 consists of a syncopated Second Pherecratic and a catalectic First Pherecratic:

$$\angle > | \angle \cup \cup | \bot | \angle \cup | \angle \cup | \underline{\angle} \land$$

Maecē-| nās ata | vīs | ēdite | rēgi-| bus. Hor.

5. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of a syncopated Second Pherecratic, a syncopated Adonic, and a catalectic First Pherecratic:

$$\angle > | \checkmark \cup | \bot | \checkmark \cup | \bot | \checkmark \cup | \angle \cup | \angle \land$$

Seu plū- | rēs hie- | mēs, || seu tribu- | it || Iuppiter | ulti- | mam. Hor.

6. The Lesser Sapphic is a logacedic pentapody with the dactyl in the third foot:

∠∪ | ∠> | ∠∪ | ∠ ∪ | ∠ □

7. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Glyconics, — a Third and a catalectic First, — with Syncope in each:

$$\stackrel{\cdot}{\angle} \cup |\angle\rangle | \stackrel{\cdot}{\triangle} \cup | \perp | \stackrel{\cdot}{\triangle} \cup | \angle \cup | \perp | \stackrel{\cdot}{\underline{\triangle}} \wedge$$
Inter | aequā- | lēs equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pā- | tīs. Hor.

¹ See p. 385, footnote 3.

. 8. The Lesser Alcaic is a logacedic Tetrapody with dactyls in the first two feet:

9. The Greater Alcaic is a catalectic logacedic Pentapody with anacrusis and with the dactyl in the third foot:

10. The Greater Archilochian consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (739, 2)

followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either dactyls or spondees; the fourth, a dactyl; and the last three, trochees:

Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nos vetat, || inco- | hare | longam. Hor.

Note 1.—This verse may be explained either as Logacedic or as Compound. With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 727, note 3.

Note 2.—The Phalaecean, not found in Horace, is a Logacedic Pentapody, with the dactyl in the second foot:

$$\leq \geq | \leq \cup | \leq \cup | \leq \cup | \leq \cup | \leq \cup$$

Nõn est | vīvere, | sed ya- | lēre | vīta. Mart.

Note 3. — The Second Priapean, not found in Horace, consists of a syncopated Second Glyconic and a catalectic Second with Syncope:

Compound Meters

- 746. The following compound meters occur in Horace:
- 1. The Iambelegus consists of an Iambic Dimeter and a catalectic Dactylic Trimeter:

Note. — This verse occurs only in the thirteenth epode of Horace, where it is sometimes treated as two verses.

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2. The Elegiambus consists of a catalectic Dactylic Trimeter and an Iambic Dimeter:

∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ⊼ || ∂ ∠ ∪ __ | ∂ ∠ ∪ __ Scribere versicu- | lōs, || amōre per- | cussum gravī.

Note. — This verse occurs only in the eleventh epode of Horace, where it is sometimes treated as two verses.

VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS

- 747. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses, and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of lyric meters in his Odes and Epodes, as follows:
- 1. Alcaic Stanza, Tetrastich. First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (745, 9); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (741, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (745, 8). Found in thirty-seven Odes: I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV. 4, 9, 14, 15.
- 2. Sapphic Stanza, Tetrastich.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (745, 6); the fourth, Adonic (745, 1). Found in twenty-six Odes: I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, 11; and in Secular Hymn.

Note. — The last foot of the third line is generally a spondee.

- 3. Greater Sapphic Stanza, Distich. First line, First Glyconic, Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (733, 7); second line, Greater Sapphic (745, 7). Found in Ode I. 8.
- 4. First Asclepiadean Stanza, Distich. First line, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3); second, Lesser Asclepiadean (745, 4). Found in twelve Odes: I. 3, 13, 19, 36; III. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV. 1, 3.
- 5. Second Asclepiadean Stanza, Tetrastich.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (745, 4); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3). Found in nine Odes: I. 6, 15, 24, 33; II. 12; III. 10, 16; IV. 5, 12.
- 6. Third Asclepiadean Stanza, Tetrastich.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (745, 4); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (745, 3, note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3). Found in seven Odes: I. 5, 14, 21, 23; III. 7, 13; IV. 13.
- 7. The Lesser Asclepiadean Meter is found in three Odes: I. 1; III. 30; IV. 8.

- 8. The Greater Asclepiadean Meter is found in three Odes: I. 11, 18; IV. 10.
- 9. Alcmanian Stanza, Distich. First line, Dactylic Hexameter (735); second, Dactylic Tetrameter (739, 2). Found in Odes: I. 7, 28; and in Epode 12.
- 10. First Archilochian Stanza, Distich. First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Lesser Archilochian (739; 3). Found in Ode IV. 7.
- 11. Second Archilochian Stanza, Distich. First line, Hexameter; second, lambelegus (746, 1). Found in Epode 13.
- 12. Third Archilochian Stanza, Distich. First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Elegiambus (746, 2). Found in Epode 11.
- 13. Fourth Archilochian Stanza, Distich. First line, Greater Archilochian (745, 10); second, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (743, 2). Found in Ode I. 4.

Note. — The second line is sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

- 14. Trochaic Stanza, Distich. First line, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (741); second, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (743, 2). Found in Ode II. 18.
- 15. Iambic Stanza, Distich.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter. Found in the first ten Epodes.
- 16. First Pythiambic Stanza, Distich. First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (743, 3). Found in Epodes 14 and 15.
- 17. Second Pythiambic Stanza, Distich. First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter. Found in Epode 16.
 - 18. Iambic Trimeter is found in Epode 17.
- 19. The Ionic Stanza is found in Ode III. 12. It consists of ten Lesser Ionic feet, variously arranged by editors. It is perhaps best treated as two Dimeters followed by two Trimeters.

Early Latin Rhythms

748. 1. Certain religious formulas, carmina, which have been preserved among the earliest remains of the Latin language, are believed to show a rhythmical structure mainly accentual. Each rhythmic series appears to contain four theses. An arsis is often suppressed, and in that case a thesis is protracted to compensate for the omission. An example of these carmina is Cato, De Re Rüstica, 132:

Iúppitér Dapálís | quód tíbi fíerf | opórtet ín dómő | famíliá méá | culignam vini dápi, etc.

Note. - These carmina are chiefly prayers, imprecations, and sacred songs.

Saturnian Verse

2. The Saturnian verse is employed in some of the earliest remains of Latin literature, but its nature is still in dispute. According to one theory it is purely accentual, with trochaic rhythm. The verse is divided into two halves by a diacresis. The first half verse has three theses; the second usually three, but sometimes only two, and in the latter case it is usually preceded by an anacrusis:

Dábunt málum Metélli || Naévió poétae. Prima incédit Céreris || Prosérpina púer. Naevius.

NOTE 1.—In the early specimens of this meter hiatus is common, but in the later literary Saturnians it occurs chiefly at the diaeresis.

NOTE 2.—There is usually one unaccented syllable between every two accented syllables, but in the literary Saturnians there are regularly two unaccented syllables between the second and third theses.

3. According to the quantitative theory held by some scholars, the Saturnian is a trochaic verse of six feet, with anacrusis. Each thesis may be a long syllable or two shorts; each arsis may be a long syllable, two shorts, or a single short. A short final syllable is often lengthened under the ictus, and an arsis is frequently suppressed:

Dabúnt malúm Metéllī || Naévió poétae. Noctú Troiád exíbant || cápitibús opértis; Naevius.

NOTE 1.—The principal pause is usually after the fourth arsis, but sometimes after the third thesis. Hiatus is common, but, in strictly constructed Saturnians, occurs chiefly at the end of the first rhythmic series.

NOTE 2.—There are many modified forms of both the accentual and quantitative theories of the Saturnian.

APPENDIX

HIDDEN QUANTITY

- 749. On the natural quantity 1 of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, observe
- I. That vowels are long before ns, nf, gn,² and before the inceptive endings scō and scor:

Conscius, consul, înscribo, însula, amans, audiens; confero, conficio, infelix, înfero; benignus, magnus, magnus, regnum; gelasco, floresco, silesco, concupisco, scisco; adipiscor.

¹ It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late received special attention from orthoepists. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the modern languages, (5) the comic poets, and (6) etymology.

Valuable information on the subject of hidden quantity will be found in the

following works:

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ROERSTER, W., Bestimmung der lateinischen Quantität aus dem Romanischen. Rheinisches Museum, XXXIII. Frankfurt am Main.

GRÖBER, G., Vulgärlateinische Substrate romanischer Wörter, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik; I-VI. Leipzig.

KÖRTING, G., Lateinisch-romanisches Wörterbuch. Paderborn, 1891.

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² On the direct testimony of Priscian, confirmed by inscriptions, all vowels are long before the endings gnus, gna, gnum; and in view of the very large number of words, simple and compound, primitive and derivative, which have these

Note 1. — Some scholars think that vowels are also long before gm, as they are known to be long in segmen, segmentum, pigmentum, etc.

NOTE 2. — Some think that vowels before sco, scor are long only when they represent long vowels in the primitives.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs or are the result of contraction are long:

Existimō, amāssō, audīssem, mālle, māllem, nōlle, nōllem, ūllus, nūllus; hōrsum (*ho-vorsum), istōrsum (*isto-vorsum), quōrsum (*quo-vorsum), rūrsus (*re-vorsus), sūrsum (*sub-vorsum).

III. That the long vowels of primitives are retained in derivatives:

Crās-tinus, fās-tus, flos-culus, iūs-tus, iūs-titia, mātri-monium, os-culum, palūs-ter, rās-trum, ros-trum, rūs-ticus.

IV. That compounds retain the long vowels of their members:

Dē-dūxī, dē-rēctus, ex-āctus, dī-stinguō, frātri-cīda, mātri-cīda, vēn-dō, intrōrsum (*intrō-vorsum), prōrsus, prōrsum (*prō-vorsus, *prō-vorsum).

V. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative singular of nouns and adjectives which increase long in the Genitive:

Lēx, lūx, pāx, plēbs, rēx, vōx.

VI. In verbs the long stem vowel of the Present is retained in all the principal parts:

ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum
cōmō	cōmere	compsi	comptum
fīgō	figere	fixi	fixum
nūbō	nübere	nūpsi	nüptum
pāscō	päscere	pāvī	pästum
scrībō	scribere	scripsi	scriptum
sūmō	sūmere	sümpsī	sümptum
vīvō	vivere	vīxī	victum

1. Note the following exceptions:

dīcō	dicere	dixi	dictum
dūcō	dücere	düxī	ductu m
cēdō	cēdere	cessī	cessum
ūrō	ürere	ussī	üstum

endings, and also in view of the fact that still other words are known to have long vowels before gn, I concur in the view of those eminent orthoepists who think it safe to treat all vowels as long before gn. The practical advantage of uniformity in the treatment of vowels in this situation is too obvious to need remark.

VII. In the following verbs the short stem vowel of the Present is lengthened in the Perfect and in the Supine or Perfect Participle:

agō	agere	ēgī	āctum
cingō	cingere	cinxi	cīnctum
dē-linquō	dēlinquere	dēlīqu ī	dēlīctum ¹
dī-stinguō	dīstinguere	dīstīn x ī	distinctum 2
emō	emere	ēmī	ēmptum
fingō	fingere	fīnxī	fictum
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctum
fruor	fruī	früctus sum	
fungor	fungi	fūnctus sum	
iungō	iungere	iūnxī	i ū nctu m
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctum
neglegō	neglegere	neglēxī	neglēctum
pingō	pingere	pīn xi	pictum
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum
sanciō	sancire	sānxi	sānctum
struō	struere	strūxī	strüctum ·
tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctum
tingō, tinguō	tingere	tinxi	tinctum
trahō	trahere	trāxī	trāctum
ungō	ungere	ūnxī	ūnctum

1. Note the long vowel in the Supine or Perfect Participle of the following verbs:

pangō	pangere	pepigī	pāctum
pungō	pungere	pupugi	pūnctum
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tāctum

VIII. Long vowels with hidden quantity are found in the following words and in their derivatives:

A	Arginūssae	Bovīllae	cīccus	crībrum
āctūtum	āthla	bovīllu s	Cīncius	crīspus
Āfricus	āthlētēs	būstum	clātrī	Crīspīnus
Alcēsti s	ātrium	Būthrōtum	Clytēmnēstra	crūsta
Ālēctō	āxilla		Cnōssus	crüstum
alīptēs		\mathbf{c}	coniūnx	cucūllus
Amāzōn	В	candēlābrum	cōntiō	cūst ōs
anguīlla	bārdus	catēlla	corōlla	
Aquīllius	Bēdriacum	catīllus	crābrō	D
arātrum	bēstia	cētra	crāstinus	dělübrum
ārdeliō	bilībris	chīrūrgus	Crēssa.	deūnx
ārdeō ···	bimēstris	cicātrīx	Crēssius	dēxtāns

So also re-linquö.
 So ex-stinguö and re-stinguö.

Diëspiter

dīserībō

dispiciō

dīstō

dīstinguō

Möstellāria

müsculus

mūscus

mūstēla.

Nārnia

nārrō

N

nāsturtium

nefāstus

nōndum

nongentī

nonne

Norba

norma

nüllus

nūntiō

nüntius

nūptiae

nūtriō

nütrix

Oenōtria

orchēstra

ōrdior

ōrdō

ōrnō

ōscen

ōscitō

ōsculum

ōsculor

ōstium

ovillus

P

palimpsēstus

palüster

pāstillus

pāxillus pēgma

periclitor

pāstus (ūs)

pāstor

Öxus

Ōstia.

ölla

ōrca

nūsauam

O

nündinae

mīsceā

mūcrō

distringō involūcrum dödráns lölens dolābra iūglāns iūrgō \mathbf{E} iñstus ēbrius **I**ūstīnus ēnōrmis iūxtā epidīcticus ēsca. T. ēsculentus lābrum (basin) Esquiliae lāmna Etrúscus lärdum exordium Lārs exōstra Lārva lātrīna F lātrō favilla lavābrum fēstus lavācrum firmus lēmna. fläbrum lēmniscus fōrma Lēmnos frūctus (ūs) lentiscus frūstrā libra frūstum lietor fürtum lūbricus fūstis lūctus (ūs) lūstrum (expiation) geōgraphia lūstrō geōrgicus lūxus (ūs) glössärium lūxuria glössema Lycurgus grÿps н M Hērculāneum Mänlins hibīscum Mārcellus hīllae Mārcus hīrcus Mārs hīrsūtus Mārsī hīrtus Mārtiālis Hispellum māxilla hōrnus māximus Hymēttus mercēnnārius Mētrodorus I mētropolis

iëntāculum

Illyria

mīlle

mīlvus

īnfēstus

īnfārmis

inlūstris

īnstīnctus (ūs)

īnstīllō

Permēssus Phoenissa. pictor pigmentum pistor pīstrīnum plēbs plēctrum plöstellum Pallia Polymestor posca prāgmaticus Prāxitelēs prēndō prīmōrdium princeps prīscus prīstinus procinctus (ūs) procrastino Procrūstēs profēstus promiscuus promptus (us) prosperus prostibulum Pūblicola pūblicus Pūblius pulvīllus pūrgō pūstula

Q
quārtus
quīnctīlis
quīncūnx
quīnquātrūs
quīnque
quīndecim
quīntus
Quīntiliānus

R
rāstrum
reāpse
rēctus
rīxa
rīxor
rōscidus
Rōscius

rõstrum Rõxänë rüctö rüsticus

S Sārsina scēptrum sēgmen sēgmentum sēmēstris sēmūncia septünx sēscentī Sesõstris sēsaui sēstertius Sēstius Sēstos simulācrum sinciput sīstrum sōhrins Socrates sõlstitium sõspes sospita stīlla strüctor sublūstris suillus sümptus (üs) sūrculus Sütrium

T
tāctus (ūs)
Tartēssus
tāxillus
Tecmēssa
tēctum
Telmēssus
Tēmnos
theātrum
Thrēssa
trāctō
trīstis

U ŭllus ulna uncia

ũnctið	ūstrīna	vāstō	vēndō	vīctus (ūs)
ūndecim	ūsūrpō	vāstus	vērnus	vīlla
ūrtīc a		Vēctis	vēstibulum	vīllum
ūspiam	\mathbf{v}	vēgrandis	vēstīgium	vindē mia
ũsqu am	vällum	Vēlābrum	Vēstīnī	Vīpsānius
ûsque	vāsculum	Venāfrum	vēxillum	viscus

IX. That vowels are generally short before nt and nd:

Amant, amantis, monent, monentis, prūdentis, prūdentia, amandus, monendus, regendus.

Note 1. — A few exceptions will be found in the list given above; see VIII.

Note 2. — Greek words also furnish a few exceptions.

X. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

FIGURES OF SPEECH

750. The principal Figures of Etymology are

- 1. Aphaeresis, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word.
 - 2. Syncope, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word.
 - 3. Apocope, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word.
 - 4. Epenthesis, the insertion of one or more letters in a word.
 - 5. Metathesis, the transposition of letters.
 - 6. See also Figures of Prosody, 733.

751. The principal Figures of Syntax are

1. Ellipsis, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Habitābat ad Iovis (sc. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter; Liv. 1, 41.

Note 1. — Aposiopesis is an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quos ego . . . sed motos praestat componere fluctus, whom I . . . but it is better to calm the troubled waves; V.1, 185.

Note 2. — For Asyndeton, see 657, 6.

2. Brachylogy, a concise and abridged form of expression:

Nostri Graece nesciunt nec Graeci Latine, our people do not know Greek; and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin; C. Tusc. 5, 40, 116.

Note. — Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one :

Ducês pictāsque exūre carīnās, slay the leaders and burn the painted ships; V. 7, 431.

3. Pleonasm is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression:

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus exire possent, there were two ways by which ways they might depart; Caes. 1, 6.

NOTE 1. — Hendiadys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective and a genitive:

Quālem paterīs lībāmus et aurō (= paterīs aureīs), such as we offer from golden bowls; V. G. 2, 192.

Note 2. - For Anaphora, see 666, 1.

4. Enallage is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:

Populus lātē rēx (= rēgnāns), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively); V. 1, 21. Sērus (sērō) in caelum redeās, may you return late to heaven; H. 1, 2, 45.

NOTE. — For Prolepsis or Anticipation, see 493; for Synesis, see 389; and for Attraction, see 396, 2; 399, 5.

5. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Viget et vivit animus, the soul is vigorous and alive; C. Div. 1, 80, 68.

Note. — For Chiasmus, see 666, 2.

- 752. Figures of Rhetoric comprise several varieties. The following are the most important:
 - 1. A Simile is a direct comparison:

Imāgō pār levibus ventīs volucrīque simillima somnō, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream; V. 6, 701.

2. Metaphor is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:

Reī pūblicae naufragium, the shipwreck of the republic; C. Sest. 6, 15.

Note. — Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, Ode I., $14: \overline{O}$ navis . . . occupa portum, etc.

3. Metonymy is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Furit Vulcānus (ignis), the fire (Vulcan) rages; V. 5, 669.

4. Synecdoche is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Statio male fida carinis (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships; V. 2, 28.

5. Irony is the use of a word for its opposite:

Quid ais, bone (male) cūstōs prōvinciae, what sayest thou, good guardian of the province? C. Ver. 5, 6, 12.

6. Climax (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Āfricānō industria virtūtem, virtūs gloriam, gloria aemulos comparāvit, industry procured excellence for Africanus, excellence glory, glory rivals; Ad Her. 4. 25.

7. Hyperbole is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulminis öcior ālis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning; V. 5, 319.

8. Litotes denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non ignara mali, not unacquainted (= far too well acquainted) with misfortune; V. 1, 630.

9. Personification or Prosopopeia represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Të patria odit ac metuit, your country hates and fears you; C. C. 1, 7, 17.

- 10. Apostrophe is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons: Võs, Albānī tumulī, võs imploro, *I implore you*, ye Alban hills; C. Mil. 81.
- 11. Euphemism is the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

Sī quid mihī hūmānitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me (i.e. if I should die); C. Ph. 1, 4, 10.

12. Oxymoron is an apparent contradiction:

Absentes adsunt et egentes abundant, the absent are present and the needy have an abundance; C. Am. 7, 23.

ROMAN LITERATURE

753. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of plays. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B.C. to 550 A.D., and it may be conveniently divided into five periods. The following are a few representative writers of these periods:

1. Early Latin Writers

Plautus	Enniu	ıs	Cato					
	2. W rite	ers of the Cicer	onian Age					
Cicero	Caesar Lucr	etius Catullu	s Sallust	Nepos				
3. Writers of the Augustan Age								
Vergil	Horace Ovid	Tibullu	s Propertius	Livy				
	4. W 1	riters of the Sil	ver Age					
Seneca	Curtius	Two Plinies	Quintilian	Tacitus				
Suetonius	Persius	Lucan	Juvenal	Martial				
	5.	Late Latin Wr	iters					
Tertullian	Lacta	ntius .	Ausonius	Claudian				
Eutropius	Macro	bius	Boëthius	Priscian				

ROMAN CALENDAR

- 754. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months, but it has the following peculiarities:
- I. The days are not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
 - 1. From the Calends, the first of each month.
- 2. From the Nones, the fifth but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. From the Ides, the thirteenth but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- II. From these three points the days are numbered, not forward, but backward.
- Note. Hence, after the *Ides* of each month, the days are numbered from the *Calends* of the following month.
- III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before each is denoted by prīdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, etc.; the second before each by diē tertiō (not secundō) ante Kalendās, etc.; the third, by diē quartō, etc.; and so on through the month.
- In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendas, Nonas, etc.; as die quarto ante Nonas Ianua-

riās, often shortened to quartō ante Nōnās Iān. or IV. ante Nōnās Iān., or without ante, as IV. Nōnās Iān., the second of January.

- 2. Ante diem is common, instead of die ... ante; as ante diem quartum Nonas Ian. for die quarto ante Nonas Ian.
- 3. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., prīdiē Kal., etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition; as ex ante diem V. Īdūs Oct., from the 11th of Oct; ad prīdiē Nonās Māiās, till the 6th of May.

755. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR

Days of the Month	March, May, July, October	January, August, December	April, June, September, November	February.		
1	Kalendis. 1 Kalendis.		Kalendis.	Kalendis.		
2	VI. Nonās.1	IV. Nonās.	IV. Nonās.	IV. Nonās.		
8	v. "	III. "	III. "	III. "		
4	IV. "	Pridie Nonas.	Prīdiē Nonās.	Prīdiē Nonās.		
5	III. "	Nonis.	Nonis.	Nonis.		
6	Prīdie Nonās.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.		
7	Nonis.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "		
8	VIII. Īdūs.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "		
9	VII. "	v. "	v. "	v. ".		
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "		
11	v. "	III. "	III. "	III. "		
12	IV. "	Prīdiē Īdūs.	Prīdiē Īdūs.	Prīdiē Īdūs.		
18	III. "	Īdibus.	IDIBUS.	ĪDIBUS.		
14	Prīdie Īdūs.	XIX. Kalend.2	XVIII. Kalend.3	XVI. Kalend.3		
15	IDIBUS.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	xv. "		
16	XVII. Kalend.2	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "		
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "		
18	xv. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "		
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "		
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "		
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "		
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "		
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "		
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "		
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. (VI.)8 "		
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. (V.) "		
27	VI. "	VI. "	₹. "	III. (IV.) "		
28	v. "	V. "	IV. "	Prīd. Kal. (III. Kal.)		
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	(Prid. Kal.)		
80	III. "	III. "	Prīdiē Kalend.	,		
81	Pridie Kalend.	Prīdiē Kalend.		•		

¹ To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nonas, Idus, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (754, III. 1).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendās Aprīlēs.

⁸ The inclosed forms apply to leap year.

- Note 1. The table will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date.
- Note 2. In leap year the 24th and the 25th of February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kal. Mārt. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only twenty-eight days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of twenty-nine days, V., IV., III. Kal. Mārt., and prīdiē Kal. Mārt.
- 756. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided into twelve hours.
 - 1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- 2. The hour, being uniformly one twelfth of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

ROMAN MONEY

757. The principal Roman coins were the as, of copper; the sestertius, quinarius, denarius, of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the Augustan period may be approximately given as follows:

Ās							2	cents
Sēstertius							4	46
Quīnārius							8	"
Dēnārius							16	"
Aureus .						8	5.00	

- 1. The as contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished, from time to time, till at last it contained only one twenty-fourth of a pound.
- 2. In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the sestertius, also called nummus.
- Note 1.—The units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals: viginti sestertii, 20 sesterces.
- Note 2.—One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii or mille sestertium.
- Note 3. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either by mīlia sēstertium (genitive plural) or by sēstertia: duo mīlia sēstertium or bīna sēstertia.
- Note 4.—In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sester-tium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, decies, vīcies, etc.: decies sestertium, 1,000,000 (10 × 100,000) sesterces.

758. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors:

A. D. = ante diem. F. C. = faciendum cūrā- | Proc. = prōcōnsul. Aed. = aedilis.vit. Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quodA. U. C. = anno urbis $Id. = \bar{I}d\bar{u}s.$ bonum, fēlix, faustumconditae. Imp. = imperator. que sit. $\cos = \cos u$. K. (Kal.) = Kalendae.Quir. = Quirītēs. Coss. = consules. Leg. = lēgātus. Resp. or R. P. = $r\bar{e}s$ $p\bar{u}$ - $D_{\cdot} = divus$ Non. = Nonae. blica. D. D. = dono dedit. O. M. = optimus māxi-S. = senātus. Des. = dēsīgnātus. mus. S. C. = senātūs consul-D. M. = diīs mānibus. P. C. = patrēs conscripti. tum. $D. S. = d\bar{e} su\bar{o}$. Pont. Max. = pontifex S. D. P. = salūtem dicit D. S. P. P. = dē suā pemāximus. plūrimam. cūniā posuit. P. R. = populus Romā-S. P. Q. R. = senātus Eq. Rom. = eques Ropopulusque Romanus. nus. mānus. Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plē-Pr. = praetor. $F_{\cdot} = filius$. Praef. = praefectus. his.

HARK. LAT. GRAM. -27

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INDEX OF VERBS

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